**College of Social Sciences and International Studies**

**Graduate School of Education**

# Systematisation of International Quality and Accreditation of Higher Education in the World

PhD thesis submitted by

Mohamed Al-Sayed Ibrahim Salim Zeidan

To

The University of Exeter as a thesis for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy in Education (2014)

This thesis is available for library on the understanding that it is copyright material and that no quotation from the thesis may be published without Zeidan's permission. I certify that all material in this thesis which is not my own work has been identified and that no material has previously been submitted and approved for the award of this degree by this or any other university. Mohamed Zeidan

# Systematisation of International Quality and Accreditation

# of

# Higher Education in the World


## Abstract

This PhD thesis is structured in two phases. The first phase looks to an enhancement of the current operations in the development of quality through creating a systematisation of quality of higher education in the world. The second phase theorises this systematisation using systems analysis and design methodology based on seven levels of analysis: individual; programme; department/faculty; institutional; national; regional; and the world level. This analytical approach generates theories about systems and applications.

The investigation reaches the conclusion that establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality would constitute a final stage in the systematisation process of international quality and accreditation of higher education in the world. However, the proposed organisation would not be a substitute organisation for national and/or regional agencies and networks of quality but would complement them by creating systematic understanding of quality in the world. The thesis offers a practical contribution to the international improvement of higher education institutions across the globe.

# Dedication

This PhD thesis is dedicated to anyone and any organisation interested in the field of systematisation of international quality and accreditation of higher education in the world.

# Acknowledgement

I express my deepest gratitude to my Supervisor Professor William Richardson for his encouragement, supervision and guidance over the years of my PhD research. I confirm my deepest gratitude to my Supervisor Dr Deborah Osberg for her patience, enthusiasm and support in this research project over the years. I would like to record my gratitude to my Supervisor Dr Rob Freathy for his guidance, continuous advice, support and encouragement throughout the thesis. I confirm my sincere gratitude to my Supervisor Professor Wendy Robinson for her support and encouragement to me to finish this PhD thesis. Many thanks must be given to them for their generosity to provide me with a valuable opportunity to do this PhD research. I owe tremendously to my Supervisors for the feedbacks they gave to me and for helping me to develop my own thoughts and my own ideas in this thesis. I express my deepest gratitude to Dr Nigel Skinner for his help and support to me over the years of studying my Doctorate in the University of Exeter. I remember my conversations with Dr Nigel in the University Campus which helped me very much to complete my Doctorate successfully. I confirm my sincere gratitude to Professor Ron Barnett from the Institute of Education, University of London for his guidance and support to me. I owe tremendously to them.

I owe my deepest gratitude to all the participants in this study for their time and their effort to share their knowledge which is very important in shaping up my ideas and ways of internationalising and systematising quality and accreditation in higher education. My sincere thanks also go to my colleagues in the University. Many thanks must be given to all those who make it possible for me to complete this PhD research project.

# Contents

# List of Figures

# List of Tables

## List of Abbreviations

**ABET:** Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology

**ANQAHE:** The Arab Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education

**APEC:** Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation

**APQN:** Asia-Pacific Quality Network

**AUF:** Agence Universitaire de la Francophonie

**CANQATE:** Caribbean Area Network for Quality Assurance in Tertiary Education

**CHEA:** Council for Higher Education Accreditation

**COL:** Commonwealth of Learning

**DAAD:** German Academic Exchange Service

**DGF:** The World Bank's Development Grant Facility

**DIUS:** Department for Innovation, Universities and Skills

**ECA:** European Consortium for Accreditation (ECA)

**EHEA:** European Higher Education Area

**ENQA:** European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education

**ENQAHE:** European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education

**ETCP:** Egyptian Technical Colleges Project

**ETMF:** Engineering Technologists Mobility Forum

**FLDP:** Faculty-Leadership Development Project

**FOEP:** Faculties of Education Project

**GIQAC:** Global Initiative for Quality Assurance Capacity

**GUNI:** Global University Network for Innovation

**HEA:** Higher Education Academy

**HEEP:** Higher Education Enhancement Project

**HEEPF:** Higher Education Enhancement Project Fund

**HEFCE:** Higher Education Funding Council for England

**HEIs:** Higher Education Institutions

**HEQA:** Higher Education Quality Council

**HESA:** Higher Education Statistics Agency

**IAU:** International association of Universities

**ICTP:** Information and Communication Technology Project

**IGOs:** International Inter-governmental Organisations

**INQAAHE:** International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher education

**IQAAHE:** International quality assurance and accreditation in Higher education

**ISO:** International Organization for Standardization

**NAQAAHE:** National Authority for Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Higher Education

**NEASC:** New England Association of Schools and Colleges

**NGOs:** Non-governmental Organisations

**NQAAC:** National Quality Assurance and Accreditation Committee

**NUFFIC:** Netherlands Organization for International Cooperation in Higher Education

**OECD:** Organisation for Economic and Cooperation Development

**QAA:** Quality Assurance Agency

**QAAHE:** Quality assurance and Accreditation in Higher Education

**QAAP:** Quality assurance and Accreditation Project

**QAC:** Quality Assurance Centre

**QAU:** Quality Assurance Unit

**RAE:** Research Assessment Exercise

**RC:** Research Councils

**RIACES:** Iberoamerican Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education

**SC:** Steering Committee

**UK:** United Kingdom

**UN:** United Nations

**UNESCO:** United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural organisation

**UNMDGs:** United Nations Millennium Development Goals

**UNOIQAAHE:** United Nations Organisation for International Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Higher Education

**USA:** United States of America

**USDE:** United States Department of Education

# List of Appendices

# Chapter One

# Introduction

## 1.1 Introduction of Doctorate

In a highly changing world, it is no longer calibres of individual performance that benchmark nations' rankings and weights. The lack of preparing generations and providing them with the most up to date required knowledge and skills has negative impacts on nations generally and on developing nations particularly. In this context, guiding and assisting nations on how they can provide a highly international quality higher education, available for all on the basis of merit without discrimination, is necessity if nations generally and developing nations particularly wish knowledge creation and innovation across sectors. To meet these local and global needs, this Doctorate creates new intellectual contribution represented in a new 'systematic' understanding of quality by creating and operating a new regime that can systematise quality, located, perhaps, in a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality, with a view to locate this new organisation within the United Nations (UN).

## 1.2 Rationale of Doctorate

The rationale stimulating this Doctorate comes in a time that it is no longer geographical factors which govern and lead the monopoly of knowledge, but quality. Reports (UNESCO, 2009) point out that Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Higher Education (QAAHE) assists in eradicating this geographical monopoly that, up to the present has maintained gaps between Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in developed and developing countries and across the world. My 'systematic' understanding of quality enables nations' gifted individuals to interact with, and contribute to, national knowledge creation without necessity of migration.

Studies (Goldberg and Shmilovici, 2005 and Harvey and Stensaker, 2008) indicate that throughout the last decades, many nations have established agencies for quality. These

agencies are often funded by, but independent of, public governments. Some of them follow the American model of accreditation, while others offer different types of quality assurance. Discussions are currently being conducted across the world about mutual recognition, perhaps indicating the need for new global creation represented in my 'systematic' understanding of quality that links 'lower' order levels into 'higher' order level. Rhoades and Sporn (2002) argue that agencies of quality are dedicated structures for quality assurance and improvement within HEIs.

The current picture of quality worldwide has national and regional levels. These levels are represented in the national agencies and regional networks of quality. Countries and regions across the world started recently to issue memoranda of understanding and mutual recognitions aimed at mutual recognition of qualifications of HEIs. These agreements occur only between countries of similar level of quality. The vast majority of these agreements are between developed countries of high level of quality. However, I argue that the level of quality of higher education in developing countries does not qualify them to conduct agreements of mutual recognition with the developed countries, due to the gap between the two levels of quality. Not only these agreements and understandings are exclusively shortened on the developed countries and margin developing countries but also they are exhausting logistically. The interested country in such agreements and understandings has to issue different agreements each time with the partner country in each agreement. This means that for recognising qualifications of certain higher education in certain country worldwide, this country has to sign agreements with all countries of the world.

The existence of national and regional levels of quality and absence of the 'systematic' understanding of quality is the problem which raised questions of this Doctorate. Not only the absence of 'systematic' understanding of quality but also the negative aspects represented in randomness resulting from this absence are also factors to conduct this investigation. The current picture of quality across the globe lacks systematisation. There is no 'systematic' understanding of quality that can manipulate and operate quality of the world. This is a global problem. The problem is not only the absence of 'systematic' understanding of quality but also the negative effects resulting from this absence particularly on developing countries. If this problem continues to exist, the gap between the quality of higher education in developed

and developing countries will continue to exist too. Moreover, conducting this investigation on 'systematic' understanding of quality could generate conclusions whether the picture of quality worldwide needs systematisation to be completed or that this current picture is already completed. I argue that creating 'systematic' understanding of quality that links 'lower' order levels into 'higher' order level can facilitate life across the globe. That is why this Doctorate is undertaken.

Since many calls by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), Organisation of Economic and Cooperation Development (OECD), The World Bank, International Association of Universities (IAU) (see the related documentations in references), and others (Tiat, 1997; Damme, 2002; Lenn, 2004; Knight, 2005; Naidoo, 2005; Baird, 2006; and Woodhall, 2007) point out the challenges quality faces currently across national and regional boundaries initiating the need for Systematisation of Quality, this Doctorate is undertaken to conduct rigorous analysis directed to framing a way of assessing the need for this initiative in order to move towards new era of international development in which a new United Nation Organisation for Systematisation of Quality would play a role within the structure of the United Nations for systematising quality across the globe.

I want to stress that a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is not to be substitutive structure of national and/or regional quality but it works in addition to them by linking them in a higher order system. This means that the world has national, regional and the new 'higher' level system of Quality. An example explaining this is that certain national higher education institution can obtain the national accreditation from its national agency for quality. But if a higher education institution desires to obtain the international accreditation, it is through The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality.

To achieve this rationale, I conducted qualitative research concerned primarily with processes and uncovering the meanings of how people see the world. It is analytical research based on documents and fieldwork, and builds abstractions, theories and generalisations from data and details. The research draws upon different references to view and analyse policies being studied and reasoning why the current global context of quality is not harmonised (linked in a coherent and ordered 'system'). The research fulfils the building of quality

worldwide by creating ‘systematic’ understanding of quality. This achievement can overcome the negative aspects resulting from the current global case of randomness of quality and the absence of ‘systematic’ understanding of quality particularly on developing countries.

## 1.3 Research Questions

The Doctorate addresses the question of whether there is a need for ‘systematic’ understanding of quality. My ‘systematic’ understanding of quality is about the logical connection of all sub-systems of quality in the world into an overall umbrella systematisation. If the research first phase of systems analysis proved that there is a need for ‘systematic’ understanding of quality, the research question interrogates further on how a theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality to manage and govern quality across the globe can be articulated, with a view to envision the future of ‘systematic’ understanding of quality. This question was divided into specific questions on current operations of the development of quality across national, regional and international levels, with a focus on whether the UN and UNESCO can assist in creating ‘systematic’ understanding of quality. An accurate explication of the research questions is located in section 3.2.3 in chapter three. To answer the research questions I investigated the national, regional and international perspectives on quality across seven levels of analysis covering documents, experts, researchers, text writers and implementations through written materials and interviews to be able to create ‘systematic’ understanding of quality and articulating the theorisation for establishing a United Nation Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the structure of the UN.

## 1.4 Doctorate Aims and Objectives

To answer the research questions, I developed certain aims and objectives. The research has main aim represented in creating ‘systematic’ understanding of quality. This is what I call my ‘systematic’ understanding of quality. ‘Quality’ in my understanding emerges from systematising all sub-systems of quality in the world in an overall systematisation. This

understanding of quality is the research aim to assess the need for creating 'systematic' understanding of quality. If the research first phase of systems analysis proved that there is a need for 'systematic' understanding of quality, the research aim targets further to articulate a theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality, with a view to envision the future of 'systematic' understanding of quality. This main aim is divided into research objectives. An accurate explication of these objectives is located in section 3.2.4 in chapter three.

## 1.5 Doctorate Approach to Quality

The Doctorate approach to quality is systematisation. This approach is based on the systematisation vision which organises and systematises quality in the world. This vision defines that quality is an overall systematisation combining a set of sub-systematisations for accrediting quality of higher education institutions. My approach differs from other definitions of quality mentioned in section 5.2 of chapter five. This is because I found that the systematisation vision is organised, harmonised and systematised (see section 11.2 of chapter eleven and section 12.2 of chapter twelve). My vision of systematisation is distinguished from other approaches to quality discussed in section 5.3 and in section 5.5 of chapter five. I mean here that my 'systematic' vision of quality is different from other approaches to quality which do not consider systematisation. The 'systematic' basis of my approach to quality creates new theoretical generalisations and new applications regarding international quality (see section 3.2.10 of chapter three).

## 1.6 Doctorate Approach to Literature Review

The way of reviewing the literature depends on the nature of the research questions, research context, and research structure and research timeframe. I have reviewed the literature on quality across national, regional and international boundaries. This was through reviewing naturally occurring data in: key policy documents from national, regional and international agencies of quality; key policy documents from the IAU, OECD, the World Bank, the International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE),

the UN and UNESCO; national, regional and international reports on quality from governmental and non-governmental organizations; the broader academic literature; and institutional and national reports, books and bulletins. The main languages of the materials I reviewed are English and Arabic.

I have reviewed large amount of documentary data that produced rigorous interpretation and construction of the international picture of current patterns in the development of quality worldwide. I have analysed this development using the documentary systems analysis and design methodology based on seven levels of analysis indicated generally from section 2.2 to 2.8 in chapter two, and manipulated explicitly in chapters six and seven. I have chosen between policy documents, governmental and non-governmental documents, reports and broader academic literature. The criterion for selection is which type of data will best illuminate the research topic, drawing on practical considerations and the ontological and epistemological positions for the orientation of the research. I depended mainly on these documents due to the nature of the research questions, aims and objectives, as I had to analyse data/information covering seven levels of development on quality. This way of review was directed to explore valid interpretations of the research themes in depth and detail. This is because the research subject matter, as I have to understand settings and issues of national, regional and international nature in parallel with the related case studies settings, motivations, decisions, impacts and outcomes; and the theories, policies, practices, structures and systems addressed in the research. Although the research systems and settings are geographically dispersed and highly diverse, the process of reviewing the literature was entirely interesting and new in the field.

I am aware and recognise that not all needed material may be made available. Although this way of analysing the literature was time consuming, its advantages are represented in providing a good source of background information and identify issues not noted by other means. The way undertaken of analysis is helpful in clarifying the research context of breadth and depth global scale. Data generated from available documents have been reviewed and analysed from seven level of analysis perspective. I followed this model of the seven level analysis in the research investigation generally (from section 2.2 to section 2.8 of chapter

two), and in conducting the research two case studies in the United Kingdom and Egypt particularly (chapters six and seven).

As complementary method to assert the knowledge occurred in the literature, I reviewed the generated data resulting from case study approach which has been used for understanding in detail and depth the context of quality in the United Kingdom and Egypt. I have analysed the generated data from the interviews in these two contexts in further details across seven levels of analysis from the individual level to the world level.

## 1.7 Doctorate Approach to Methodology

The main intellectual frame underpinning the methodological stance of this research is a documentary systems analysis and design methodology (see figure 9 in chapter four), which sets out to take an epistemology from the natural sciences (most notably engineering, computer, and IT sciences) and to apply this to the social sciences (the need for Systematisation of Quality). The structure of analysis utilizes wide range of complementary levels of analysis directed to investigating current operations in the development of quality across national, regional and international boundaries. Most systematically and as a result of systems analysis and design methodology (illustrated in detail through the research case studies in the UK and Egypt and generally across the research), this research assesses the nature and evidence of how quality currently operates in different contexts, with a view to articulate theorisation for proposing new systems design and its realisation through an international organisation such as a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality.

The research methodology consists of two phases: phase one is systems analysis (chapters 2 - 12) and phase two is systems design (chapters 13 - 14). The research first phase of systems analysis utilises wide range of complementary perspectives on quality designed to investigate current operations in the development of quality across national, regional and international levels in general, and current operations in the development of quality in the UK and Egypt in particular. The research used the documentary systems analysis in conducting this

investigation generally, and used case studies in investigating current operation in the development of quality in the UK and Egypt for more depth and detail. The research second phase used systems design to create 'systematic' understanding of quality. This creation proposes refinements to the current quality identified in phase one of the research.

It is important to indicate why the research has been undertaken this way and why its structure has been formed this way. I used systems analysis and design methodology and not any other methodology because I am investigating systems and assessing the need to propose creating new system for 'systematic' understanding of quality. Every methodology can succeed if there is conformity between its nature and the nature of research. But systems analysis and design methodology can succeed with all types of research. This is because if we look at everything in the world, we will find it a system. It should be taken into consideration that system is not a machine, although every machine contains a system but not every system is necessarily machine. A real example of this is that every one of us is an overall system combining a set of subsystems. We all have nervous system and digestive system within the body of every one of us. This argument is analysed explicitly in section 4.3 in chapter four.

Systems analysis and design methodology is new to be implemented in educational research generally and in the field of Quality particularly. I imported and brought this methodology from sciences of engineering, computer and IT and applied it in social sciences (the case of the present research). However, there is a difference between using this methodology in educational research and using it in technical and scientific sciences. Social sciences are more complex than technical sciences because of the interference between the different elements and the difficulty of controlling the social circumstances. Simply because the two disciplines are different, so the application of this methodology in these two different disciplines is not the same. All elements in technical and natural sciences can be controlled, but it is difficult to have the same control in social sciences.

## 1.8 Doctorate Approach to Analysis

Methodologically, this research assesses the need for 'systematic' understanding of quality through analysing current operations in the development of quality across national, regional and international boundaries via seven levels of analysis. These levels are: the individual level; the programme level; the department/faculty level; the institutional level; the national level; the regional level; and the world level. This way of analysis has been operated with the research theoretical framework and with the research fieldwork for drawing conclusions and generalisations on the need for 'systematic' understanding of quality. Levels of analysis in this research are based on the findings of the research data from documents, reports, surveys, academic literature and qualitative interviews with 8 key experts from the UK and Egypt in addition to a face to face open survey questionnaire with 51 key experts from Egypt. In particular, data derived from the interviews constitutes important source for forming these conclusions. The points made by interviewees in the two country case studies are posited here as generalizable at the global level, as suggestion corroborated by conformance between the findings of documentary analysis and the points clarified by the research participants. The case study approach used in the fieldwork of this research is inspired by the methods of qualitative studies (Stake, 1995; Pring, 2000; Silverman, 2000; Gubrium and Holstein, 2001; Silverman, 2001; Trochim, 2001; Rubin and Rubin, 2005; Schostak, 2006; and Flick, 2006). The data which points to the generalizability of 'systematic' understanding of quality at the global level is now presented as structured around two themes: as arising empirically from the research two country case studies and as arising theoretically from the research intellectual modelling of 'systematic' understanding of quality in terms of seven levels (see figure 9 in chapter four).

I want to indicate that the research case studies in the UK and Egypt are not dedicated specifically to compare each other as this research is not dedicated specifically for a comparative perspective. The reason why the research has (as part of its design) case studies in the UK and Egypt is to investigate and assess their need for 'systematic' understanding of quality. They have been selected as the UK is developed country and Egypt is developing country. I am studying the two cases to investigate their need and feasibility to accept 'systematic' understanding of quality. The investigation of the research two case studies gives further breadth and depth to the documentary systems analysis of this research. It also strengthens and deepens the findings of the research investigation.

The way of analysis followed in this research is not existed in the literature. It looks into quality from every perspective starting from the smallest and deepest level of analysis in the world (the individual level) and ending with the largest analysis in the world (the world level). Also the research subject, its nature and divisions and how the research envisions the future of 'systematic' understanding of quality in chapter fourteen (of systems design) is entirely new. This way of analysis in this research does look to the whole first, then to the part and return back to the whole for forming new systems, theoretical generalisations and applications.

## 1.9 Doctorate Contributions to Knowledge

The claim of the contributions to knowledge in this research is intellectual, methodological and substantial. Regarding the research intellectual contribution, creating 'systematic' understanding of quality in the field is new creation for which the need has been confirmed. Bringing this into existence can overcome the negative effects resulting from this absence particularly on developing countries. Regarding the research substantial contributions, the way this research has been undertaken and its structure is new in the field. The structure of the research and the way of analysing data is new. The research analysed current operations in the development of quality from seven levels of analysis, which is entirely new in the field of 'systematic' understanding of quality. Regarding the research methodological contributions, this is the first study to implement systems analysis and design methodology in educational research generally and in the field of 'systematic' understanding of quality particularly. The process of the research data collection and data analysis generated three types of representativeness and generalizability: representational; referential and theoretical. This classification of representativeness and generalizability is new to be confirmed in the field. This design and its model of analysis are new in the field adding new methodological applications and knowledge to educational research. I have imported the research methodology from engineering, computer and IT sciences, which is now to be operated in the field of Education. This importation has been theorised for the first time in this research because it is not in the existing literature. An accurate explanation of this is located from

section 4.2 to section 4.9 of chapter four. The research methodological contributions continue. The research used seven analytical typologies for the first time not only in the field but also across the broader literature. The first typology is the fact of the research three-fold typology of national, regional and international boundaries. The second typology is the fact of the research seven-level analysis typology. The third typology is the fact of the research data analysis seven-theme typology. The fourth typology is the fact of the research two-fold data typology. The fifth typology is the fact of the research two case studies typology of two contrasting contexts. The sixth typology is represented in the research generalizability of the three-fold typology of representational, referential and theoretical generalisation. And finally the seventh typology is represented in the research encyclopaedia two-fold typology of both breadth and depth global scale, combining between the smallest level of analysis in the world (the individual level) and the largest level of analysis in the world (the world level). An accurate analysis of these seven typologies is explained in section 3.2.10 of chapter three.

## 1.10 Considerations

My Doctorate is original. I have executed this particular type of research with a careful consideration to the research authenticity. The originality of data is accurate and coherent. The way the data has been structured and analysed is entirely original. The manipulation of data in this research does not exist in the literature. The idea of the research and the articulation of the research theorisation for 'systematic' understanding of quality via creating The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality are completely original. I gave further attention to the research credibility, where all the data and information occurred in this research are accurate. Also the research representativeness is unique and of wider impact upon the research context, similar contexts and the notion of quality across the globe. The type and kind of data enables the research to have representational generalisation, referential generalisation and theoretical generalisation. Furthermore the meaning of the writings in this research is clear and does not bear more than one meaning. This because the clarity of the research intention.

Finally the impact of the research literature review has had positive reflections upon me. It directed me to envision new ways of structure and content in building this research. I think that I have done something different, unique, valid and reliable. After conducting this research, quality worldwide entered new era of international development. This can lead to create new ideas, visions, theories and systems. The global picture of quality has now been completed and can be seen, evaluated and developed. This research put the final stone in the worldwide building of quality by adding a missing international level and articulating theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. However, I want to make clear that the research envisioned, assessed and theorised, and that the actual construction and establishment of a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is the responsibility of the United Nations.

## 1.11 Outline of Doctorate

The structure of the thesis is fairly clear. It consists of fifteen chapters. The first chapter is the research introduction. It contains an important set of statements about the research rationale, levels of analysis, methodology, questions, aims and objectives, literature review, contributions to knowledge and other research considerations. Chapter two is Literature Review. Systematisation of the second chapter reviews the literature on quality and accreditation of higher education across seven levels of analysis starts from the smallest level of analysis in the world and ends with the biggest level of analysis in the world. The seven levels the chapter reviews are: the individual level; programme level; department/school level; institutional level; national level; regional level; and the world level. This chapter is dedicated to relate the subject matter of the thesis to the existing body of knowledge within the field. This relation creates critical engagement of argument between the thesis and the literature. The presentation of this relation will be literary articulated through the thesis new literary style represented in systematisation. Chapter three is Design. Systematisation of chapter three explains in details the research design. This chapter gives explanatory analysis to the components of research design. Chapter four is Methodology. Systematisation of chapter four theorises the application of systems analysis and design methodology in educational research generally and to execute this research particularly. This chapter creates

detailed justification for the use of systems analysis and design methodology. This revision includes critical discussion of the way in which systems analysis and design methodology can be used to create an understanding of governing institutions such as those that are found in agencies of quality and accreditation, higher education institutions, the United Nations, and others. Chapter five is quality of higher education. Systematisation of this chapter investigates the nature and characteristics of quality and accreditation of higher education. This chapter grounds the basic knowledge required to understand the subject of the thesis and its vision of systematisation of quality in the world. Chapter six is Quality of the United Kingdom. Systematisation of the thesis in this chapter creates the relevance of quality in the United Kingdom to the argument for creating 'systematic' understanding of quality in the world through establishing organisation within the United Nations dedicated for governing this systematisation. Chapter seven is Quality of Egypt. Systematisation of this chapter investigates quality in Egypt in relation to systematisation of quality in the world. Chapter eight is "Regional Quality. Systematisation of this chapter examines the development of quality and accreditation of higher education across the different regions of the world. This chapter indicates the gap in the current situation of quality in the regions of the world. This investigation articulates the importance of systematisation of quality in the world. Chapter nine is international quality and accreditation of higher education. Systematisation of this chapter investigates the development of international policies and procedures in quality. This chapter explains the gap in the current situation of quality in the world. This chapter articulates the importance of 'systematic' understanding of quality in the world. Chapter ten is The United Nations. Systematisation of this chapter creates overview on the character and structure of the United Nations as a place of systematisation of quality in the world. The thesis vision is systematisation of quality in the world through establishing organisation within the United Nations dedicated for this systematisation. Chapter eleven is Findings. Systematisation of this chapter generates the thesis findings to report on the whole thesis. This chapter generates the research findings across the whole investigation. Chapter twelve is Discussion. Systematisation of this chapter creates critical discussion of the research findings and their relation to the literature. This identifies the perceived gap in the current situation of quality in the world to explain the reasons why this thesis is required to create 'systematic' understanding of quality in the world. Chapter thirteen is systematisation of international quality and accreditation of higher education in the world. Systematisation of

this chapter grounds ‘systematic’ understanding of quality in the world. This chapter clarifies the reasons why ‘systematic’ understanding of quality should be created through establishing organisation within the United Nations dedicated for this systematisation. This chapter creates clear articulation of the thesis creation of knowledge. This chapter articulates the purposes and priorities of this systematisation and how it governs quality in the world. The governance of systematisation of quality in the world creates explanation of the criteria of governance, creates decisions, and creates indication of the institutions accountable under governance. Chapter fourteen is Impact. Systematisation of this chapter discusses the impact of ‘systematic’ understanding of quality in the world. This chapter articulates the impact of the thesis informing its systematisation not only of quality and accreditation of higher education in the world but also creates other original impact in the world. Chapter fifteen is Conclusion. Systematisation of this chapter concludes the thesis.

# Phase One – Systems Analysis

## Chapter two

## Literature Review

### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research seven-level analysis typology. It addresses quality from seven perspectives in general with a view to indicate the need for 'systematic' understanding of quality. The same type of typology addresses these seven levels in details in chapters six and seven, where the thesis strengthens and deepens its analysis with exploring current operations in the development of quality in the UK and Egypt and their suitability to accept systematisation. An explicit analysis of each level follows.

### 2.2 Individual Level

The individual perspective is the knowledge-based outlook and view of the individual staff member, including his or her view of whether there is a need or not for 'systematic' understanding of quality. In so far as this research engages at the individual level, it is through discussions between the researcher and his supervisors as to the design and execution of the research project.

The individual analysis in this research is indicated via the different visions and view generated from interviews. The investigation required conducting interviews with experts from the UK and Egypt in order to elaborate information around current operations in the development of quality in depth and detail, with a view that these perspectives were directed to assess whether there is a need for 'systematic' understanding of quality.

To express the relation between quality and individuals, Vajda*et al*. (2006) point out that in the early 1990s a shift was experienced in the policy of quality. It was soon realised that there is a need for implementing formal quality control and quality assurance systems by the guidelines and norms of national standards. Driving forces were mostly internal directed to demonstrate the quality of work, to credit methods, to achieve a better reputation, and to have better chances in applying for projects, contracts and/or support in order to maintain quality. The external motivation like the request of customers and competitors created additional source of motivation to undertake quality. However, operating quality requires providing facilities and resources, as maintaining accreditation status demands a lot of effort from the individuals. Quality has the validity to improve the theoretical knowledge. It assists the individual to become more allied and to keep competitiveness and to generate confidence. The accredited status offers better chances for signing services, agreements and/or research contracts. Nevertheless, it also means a constant challenge for the improvement of efficiency, effectiveness and reliability.

However, studies (Van-Ginkel and Rodrigues-Dias, 2007; Uvalic-Trumbic, 2007; and Jayasuriya and Robertson, 2010) show that quality had different impacts on people. Some impacts were considered as positive, but some were considered negative. These studies assert that there is no doubt that quality made a large impact on staff within HEIs. The negative attitudes among members of staff appeared to be the most important cost of quality. The findings of these studies show that quality might be: alien concept; not easy to be understood; audited seriously with more loads of work to academics and administrative staff; pressure on staff; and a reveal of the weakness of staff individually and HEIs as it is reported to the public.

The difficulties of controlling and evaluating the quality of a service such as higher education are recognised. Gibbs and Iacovidou (2004) argue that a greater burden for service quality is placed on the workforce, hence selection of employees, specification of procedures (where possible) and workforce training are critical in service industries. The competence or potential of academic staff with respect to their teaching role should, therefore, be assured during the recruitment process, and further clarified and enhanced by means of induction, mentoring, appraisal, and staff development and training.

For overcoming these difficulties, Barnett (1992 and 1993) and HEQC (2004) suggest a solution to this burden as the quality of learning cannot be assessed directly. They point out that it is necessary to do so indirectly by assessing the value that an institution attached to like teaching and learning. I argue that staff development is crucial in quality. However, from my own personal experience (in Egypt) I doubt that universities sufficiently orchestrated their staff development activities so that they do lead to more effective learning. This is a case which needs further development. I see that academics need to be led but not to be managed. Perhaps an international level of quality might raise their inspiration to the best practice.

Although the beneficial influence of quality is widely recognised, Louisy (2004) and Deem and Brehony (2005) argue that there are some detriments which are commonly and strongly voiced. They commented that several views doubted whether the benefits of the systems of quality outweighed the detriments. These views are founded on concerns regarding the relevance and burden of quality. There is a concern that the continued operation of a process that was perceived to be retrospective and bureaucratic could foster negative views of assurance as bureaucracy and quality as compliance rather than support a culture of enhancement. Moreover, the use of weak evidence in judgements of reviewers is a crucial negative factor (Ibid). The disappointment regarding this is compounded and dispiriting when weaknesses in the report are acknowledged and the report is altered but the grading remained. Further, such disillusionment could strongly counter the internal quality assurance for external review. However, I argue that these negative aspects might due to the nature of work required to operate quality; and the emotions of staff resulting from their own experiences. At any way this does not represent a theoretical generalizability. The vast majority of staff both academic and administrative in the research case studies looks at quality as an enhancing method (system) which brought new policy and practice to the field of higher education development.

From my own experience, the lack of awareness of quality represents a problem in turning the policy of quality into practice. The culture of quality among academics is not well-established. This besides the lack of experts specialised in quality. The staff operating agencies of quality are academic staff brought from universities. They are not specialised in quality. It may be because quality has not become a discipline yet. This current context led

me to propose the future development of quality in chapter fourteen, where the thesis folds its pages.

## 2.3 Programme Level

Academic programmes are theoretical and/or practical courses designed to systemise academic and/or practical knowledge or professional experience over a given period of time, leading to qualifications in HEIs. Internationalising the quality of academic programmes in HEIs is a complex task but has the aim of producing graduates with international-level knowledge and skills, recognised qualifications, ability to act on local and global issues and knowledge to contribute to the global economy. Within individual HEIs the benefits include enhancement of policy and practice in teaching and learning processes.

Dyrdal and Karseth (2006) argue that changes in the curricular structure of higher education towards a credit transfer framework may also be seen as a factor that challenges the position of disciplinary knowledge within higher education programmes and thereby create a discursive practice emphasising a utilitarian perspective. As an example of this, the teaching of English as a second language is undertaken in many countries where the first language is not English. Intellectually, teaching English programmes are delivered via different methods in pre and post-secondary education. There appears to be a need for much greater research and development internationally concerning the provision of English as an international language for international communication and inter-cultural exchange. In this context, comparative studies (Morelan*det al*. 2000; and Dunworth, 2008) point out that trans-national English language teaching programmes in the higher education sector need to: accommodate key management concerns; relate capacity and resources to issues of communication, culture, principles and values; and address consciously and transparently these issues if good practice in the management of these programmes is to be successfully promoted.

However, Deem and Johnson (2000) direct a strongly voiced criticism in that honesty in self-assessment regarding weaknesses of programmes is punished, whereby the institution got them back in the report and it cannot be excellent because it has those weaknesses. Linked to

this feeling, Hill *et al*. (2003) point out that there is a perception that some reviewers worked from a premise that presumes guilt rather than innocence. This perhaps because institutions and departments learn from what they feel of harsh experiences assuring the quality of their programmes. They commented that although the desire to perform well in external reviews was a factor in driving forward programmes' preparations, there are sometimes negative aspects attached to this. For example external review is a highly competitive exercise and this is detrimental to some inter-institution subject area relationships, particularly, but not entirely, in small cognate areas or when there is doubt about the validity of judgements made by peer reviewers. I can add a further concern that in some cases a motivating factor for undertaking the peer review role might lead participation to be a protective measure. I argue that these concerns are important not as disadvantages but as considerations need to be taken into account when performing the operations of quality.

## 2.4 Department/Faculty Level

The department/faculty is the structure that unites of academic staff around certain specialisations or scientific areas inside specific HEIs. Departments and/or faculties are responsible for systemising, governing and leading teaching and learning, research and community service in HEIs. Informal research of some universities, via their websites, reveals that, while some HEIs have clear structures for academic departments in their organisational structure, others do not. (for example, www.ioe.ac.uk and www.education.ac.uk)

Smith and Ngoma-Maema (2003) argue that institutional quality is the process that school goes through in order to measure how well it is doing in relation to those goals and qualities that matter to the school, its stakeholders or other individuals or bodies in the system. It is consistent with new public management thinking which stresses that the primary responsibility for institutional development and quality assurance must lie with the institution itself. Quality is related to the desired results of schooling which are immediate and directly linked to schooling or more long-term and less easily linked. Conditions are defined as those factors that are believed to contribute to the achievement of desired outcomes or that capture

what one wants the school to be like, regardless of any contribution to specific outcomes. The outcomes and conditions must be defined operationally so that they can be measured. Performance standards specify the level(s) or degree(s) of desired performance and are made concrete by assessment criteria that enable schools to observe and measure performance. The standards and criteria for a given outcome or condition specify respectively what constitutes successful performance and the basis for judging that performance.

The governance and operation of the quality assurance units in faculties requires a formal management processes. The first step is to establish a project team with a faculty leader as the project manager and a representative cross-section of the faculty in the group. Then, the team should identify what pieces of information are missing to define the necessary processes. The group should develop an action plan, identifying responsibilities and timelines for obtaining the information and applying the development methodology in the organization. With persistence and patience, this methodology can yield a robust set of consistent processes. The structure of formal processes can promote the mission-driven, outcomes-oriented culture of continuous improvement advocated by the quality assurance units and beneficial to all institutions of higher education. Brennan and Austin (2003) and Weinstein and Schneller (2009) argue that quality is related to: defining the school's current practices for a particular process, with a view to noting differences between locations; benchmarking other schools' approaches to the process, using professional contacts and sample self-study reports; developing a process definition, meeting the requisite standards; discussing and refining the proposal in committee; and presenting the process to the faculty for consideration and adoption. However, some HEIs may have a problem with faculty commitment to the overall accreditation effort.

The interaction between faculties and their departments is a culture of collegial and hierarchical elements. Kogan and Hanney (2000) point out that the value of considering this interaction is that it provides an appropriate background to the consideration of the influence of quality on the policy and practice of departments and faculties. This requires the need to create a balance between the collegium and the managerialist approach that might be expected from the operations of quality. An example is that my university in Egypt was experiencing a greater amount of management interwoven with its traditional culture of

collegiality. This experience was realised after the operations of quality had started. This is because the new operations of quality required an advanced type of management.

However, Deem *et al*. (2007) highlight a detriment of quality represented in the amount of time expended by faculties and departments on satisfying external accountability and the opportunity cost to other activities including teaching. It was evident that the desire to perform well may have increased the workload, with pondering that how much of the burden of it is actually self-imposed as opposed to being imposed by the operations of quality. Also, Erk (2009) highlight the financial burden of satisfying external accountability. These were evident in a number of ways such as the preparation of additional documentation, and having staff devoted to satisfying the requirements of external accountability. Also the disproportionate cost of using formal mechanisms with limited staffing when informal practices could operate well on a small scale. In spite of this, I argue that the advantages of operating quality outweigh these difficulties. We can look at HEIs particularly after operating the requirements of quality. The landscape of higher education worldwide has improved massively due to implementing quality assurance and accreditation.

## 2.5 Institutional Level

HEIs are governmental or non-governmental organisations specialising in delivering education after secondary education, comprising processes of teaching and learning, research and community service. It is argued that international policies and practices in quality might assist HEIs, particularly in an age of globalisation and marketization. Some studies (Lomas, 1999; Pounder, 1999; and Kemenade *et al*., 2008) have engaged in defining quality leading to the identification of broad approaches across range of organisational types. These approaches are the manufacturing-oriented approach, the product-oriented approach, the customer-oriented approach and the value-for-money approach. Examining existing theories, policies and practices on quality (see chapter three) generate a rigorous case for a further broad approach suitable for application within ubiquitous non-governmental organisations such as universities: a global-oriented approach, known as systematisation of quality, directed to assisting HEIs in fulfilling global values in their teaching and learning, research

and community service. This research may have insights and analysis in non-governmental organizations other than universities like economic, social and cultural agencies across global borders.

Creating a global-oriented approach of systematisation of quality could help in building a cadre of trained quality professionals in order to enable HEIs and agencies of quality to adopt and operate an international perspective within their policies and practices of quality. In this regard, a systems design study (Dickenson *et al*., 2000) described Russian perspective on building an infrastructure for quality management. Such an initiative was called for after finding that knowledge of quality management, ideas and the provision of higher education and training were found to be low. The Russian project advocated dependence upon syllabuses and course structures for aligning quality management to the methods of the European Quality Centre which was established in 1998, having first harmonised them within existing practice and traditions of the Russian context.

The current international context of globalisation has generated comparative and case study research (Leslie, 1999; McKay and Kember, 1999; Fagadeesh, 2000; McAdamand Welsh, 2000; Oldfield and Baron, 2000). These argue that HEIs face tremendous difficulties in addressing pressing requirements of the contemporary labour market. A variety of teaching processes, academic programmes, institutional perspectives, theories, policies and practices, and quality orientations exist from country to country. Their argument continued to say that it is difficult for HEIs to balance local and global obligations. However, I argue that change in HEIs is inevitable as a response to change in current global economic and social life, and quality-driven initiatives at universities like establishing quality assurance units in faculties and establishing quality assurance centres in universities. This indicates the need to respond to these challenges. The research presented here examines whether creating and operating systematisation of quality via proposing a theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality has the rationale and feasibility to assist HEIs in their responses to these challenges.

It is argued that interaction between the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality and quality structures in the universities can raise the level of quality in HEIs from

national or/and regional levels to the international level. A case study conducted by Welsh and Dey (2002) indicates that the existence of these structures represents a strength point. I argue that these quality structures can be a central building block in fulfilling the requirements of the suggested organisation operating via the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of quality. What support my argument is what Welsh and Dey discussed of the notion of quality assessment. They described the role of a quality structure at the University of Louisville which set out to promote a process titled Quality Measurement System 2000 (QMS2000), showing how QMS2000 provided data and information around quality assurance of academic programmes to students, alumni, faculty, staff and employers through an online operating network at the university, while reinforcing the university's ability to integrate and apply policy and practices of quality assurance at the same time.

I continue to argue that such quality structures in HEIs have the ability to harmonise institutional, national, regional and international needs, goals, values and orders. A comparative study (Ursin *et al*., 2008) investigated bodies like these established to examine the educational provision of universities with specific cultural and institutional features while, at the same time, creating harmonisation within the aims of the Bologna Process. However, while this study showed that staff in quality structures of HEIs were familiar with evaluation and quality assurance, it found that they were unsure about the procedures and effects of quality assurance in their structures. This means that there is a need for qualifications and degrees in quality to graduate specialists who can work professionally in the field of quality.

The practices of quality structures can also facilitate opportunities for communication and collaboration processes between HEIs and international organisations, associations, networks and marketplaces around the world. To reflect this, a case study (Ottewill and Gregory, 1999) points out that these structures are able to: support processes of quality assurance; provide a resource on which to base plans for the future development of the unit; enhance effective management of quality inside HEIs; facilitate succession planning and staff development; and contribute to the diffusion of innovation within the academic and wider community.

However, Watson (2000) and Deem (2001) raise some concerns regarding the operation of the processes and the scope for inconsistency. Although quality impacts grade inflation over the period of external review, the most common and strongest criticism of the processes was that some reviewers might come with agendas and expectations and accordingly did not respect institutional diversity. This could have an additional negative effect on morale when people feel that the reviewers have not understood how the universities make sense of what they do, and it was perceived that an unfair result was received. I argue that this concern might happen but very rarely. Agencies of quality can overcome this by staff professional development and reviewing the reviewers' judgements. I mean to check the validity and reliability of the reviewers' judgements.

## 2.6 National Level

National higher education is a system that constructs a general picture of higher education in certain country, distinguishing it from other systems in different countries. In this regard, a case study by Kistan (1999) points out that, world-wide, higher education is undergoing major challenges in its organisation. Quality has emerged as a primary instrument for evaluating performance in higher education systems. In response, some nations have begun to import foreign policies of quality to their national higher education sectors aimed at sustainable enhancement. An example of this is Egypt where quality is an imitation to the practices of quality in the developed countries. South Africa is another example of those countries imitating systems of quality, responding to a perceived need for South African higher education to be developed better to generate shared understanding of and appropriate responses to the wider context of quality assurance.

Perhaps what encourages the governments in the developing countries to imitate quality from the developed countries is their need for satisfying their peoples that they are implementing the up to date practice in their HEIs. In this vein, studies (Lomas, 1999 and Yorke, 1999) argue that standards of quality are open to interpretations which depend upon the interpreter's perspective. However, every nation's standards need to be able to meet an expectation to respond to national needs and institutional context. Meanwhile, a survey (OECD, 2004) of

higher education systems across 16 countries found that the nature and characteristics of higher education systems in the countries were generally similar to each other. A comparative study (Vincent-Lancrin, 2007) points out that there is a crisis in public higher education across some OECD countries at a time when globalisation has brought innovation and human capital development to the forefront of public policies. Consequently, governments try to make their public higher education more globally competitive. International rankings of universities explain why some countries are placing emphasis on developing "World Class" universities. This international orientation is expected to remain a major driver of change in public higher education (GUNI, 2007).

I argue that internationalisation and globalisation helped in spreading quality in all countries which exceeded this to regions around the world. The notion of quality as an enhancing mechanism (system) emanated from the policy and practice of globalisation. National countries are different but they are not contrasted. This indicates there is a means of creating harmonisation between countries to accept 'systematic' understanding of quality. The countries would agree on the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality as long as they see social and economic benefits. However, some kind of harmonisation and contextualisation might be required in case that there is a need for this new era of development.

The matter of international credibility and recognition of higher education qualifications appears to be characterised by the emerging development in quality across countries and regions. Globalisation policy discourse created several practices that are connected with the policies of national countries. These practices include: the movement of ideologies of quality; the emergence of regional agencies of quality impacting national countries' sovereignty; the development of new cultural practices in higher education; and the influence of external ideas on the social order of developing countries. This research is then investigates whether a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality might overcome the problem of foreign qualifications' recognition among HEIs across the globe.

The impact of the regional networks of quality on national agencies of quality is evident. The nature of work (based on national vision) of national agencies of quality after the

establishment of their regional networks for quality became different. The focus on national contextualisation turned to include the regional contextualisation. There is no doubt that national governments want some national contextualisation. However, they accepted the membership of their regional networks of quality because of the benefits like sharing information, cooperating experience as well as mutual recognition of the qualifications of their HEIs for the mobility of students, staff and professionals. This kind of acceptance as Harvey (2004) and Kohoutek (2009) point out might be a kind of enforcement of the policy of sharing the regional features and interests. The existence of regional networks of quality created positive relation led to cooperation between countries in the field of quality. This is represented in that all countries which have agencies of quality are now members of their regional networks of quality. In spite of this rich context, the international arena remains empty of any type of such relation or cooperation. As a result this research investigates the need for international quality to fill this gap. This need might be possible particularly in an age of globalisation and internationalisation in everything we experience. As I explained in chapter one, internationalisation and globalisation are not things to hate or like. They are realities we need to know how to deal with. Perhaps a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can assist national countries in general and HEIs in particular on how they can deal with internationalisation and globalisation.

Staff personnel within the agencies of quality across national countries would determine the implementation details of quality through strategic and project management agendas. The corporate managerial philosophy for planned change and effectiveness would embrace at the level of the boards and secretariats of the agencies. Referring to this, Taylor (2003) argue that managerialism focuses on a narrowing of policy goals which are set at a higher level within the organization, with responsibility for achievement of such goals devolved to lower levels within the organization. Additionally, Davies and Thomas (2002) spoke about the shift towards a more neoliberal discourse in education policy characterized by the new contractualism or neoliberal politicization of public management. This discourse suggested a separation of powers from the term ‘political’ and ‘governance’. Based in this vision, I can say that managerialism provides problematic argument about governance, as the decision making of public authorities can be autonomous from politics. However, I consider that in reality the twain hardly ever separated in practice.

I argue that quality created change in the relationship between HEIs and the states. Although the increased governmental involvement could indicate that the state is taking responsibility for the quality of provision, universities became self-motivated to achieve high level of quality. It is the fund policy which affects this relationship. The governments started to give further importance to the quality of learning and teaching, research and community outreach and knowledge transfer as criteria for entitling HEIs to public fund. The new mechanisms of ranking universities; student enrolment; knowledge production and facilities are all among the factors which identify the relationship between HEIs and their states. The national governments became more interested in the quality of their universities. This is because it is not the individuals' calibres which rate the scale of the country but the quality of their education systems. Seeking international level of quality might raise the countries' scale particularly the developing countries.

## 2.7 Regional Level

The regional perspective in this study is the applied policy and practice framework for quality for particular region of the world supervised by regional bodies that distinguish their initiatives from those of other regions. There are many regional initiatives for quality (see the specific bibliography of websites in Appendix C). The policies and practices arising from these initiatives are bounded by the membership of each network. Although these networks are thought to assist HEIs in certain regions in meeting and addressing their regional needs, these networks may not be able to address all challenges because of the current pressures they face. The regional networks of quality include:

Washington Accord: This accord was signed in 1989, and was first to recognise substantial equivalence in the accreditation of qualifications in professional engineering, normally of four years duration. This accord covers North America and Western Europe.
The Association of Accrediting Agencies in Canada: This association was founded in 1994 as a national network of professional education accrediting bodies.

The European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education: This association came into being in 2000 as the European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education. In 2004, it was transformed from a network into an association. The membership of this association is open to quality assurance agencies in the signatory states of the Bologna Declaration.

Sydney Accord: Sydney Accord commenced in 2001 and recognises substantial equivalence in the accreditation of qualifications in engineering technology, normally of three years duration. This accord covers the region of Australia, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom.

Asia-Pacific Quality Network: This network focuses on serving the needs of quality assurance agencies in higher education in its region. The mission statement of this network is to enhance the quality of higher education in Asia and the Pacific region. This enhancement can occur through strengthening the work of quality assurance agencies and extending the cooperation between the members.

The Network of Central and Eastern European Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education: This network was founded in 2001 in Cracow, Poland. This network is a non-governmental and non-profit organization. Its main aims are to act as a clearinghouse for information and to harmonize quality assurance activities, as well as to represent the region in other international arenas.

Dublin Accord: Dublin Accord is agreement for substantial equivalence in the accreditation of tertiary qualifications in technician engineering, normally of two years duration and it commenced in 2002. This accord covers Canada, Ireland, South Africa and the United Kingdom.

The African Quality Assurance Network: This network is committed to the assurance and enhancement of the quality of higher education in Africa. It operates within the African continent through strengthening the work of quality assurance agencies and other associated organizations with similar objectives.

The Arab Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education: This network has been established in 2007 as a non-profit and non-governmental organization. The purpose of this network is to establish the Arab Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education in order to create a mechanism between the Arab countries to exchange information about quality assurance, construct new quality assurance agencies or organizations, develop standards or

support the already present ones, disseminate good practice in quality assurance and strengthen liaison between quality assurance bodies in the different Arab countries.

Through critical analysis of these regional networks (see the related web sites in references) and some comparative and case study reports (Gore *et al*., 2000; Beale *et al*., 2008; Berde, 2008; and Filippakou and Tapper, 2008), it is evident that each network has a certain number of requirements and expects practice from its members which are different from these of other regional networks. Each regional network guides and supports its members on how they can meet the requirements and responsibilities prevailing in their regional area. Currently, some regional operations of quality, particularly in the European area, are tending to establish a reciprocal acknowledgement among members if any HEI successfully passes external examination by any acknowledged regional member. However, there is no common phenomenology or standards, policies and practices of quality applied across these networks, although there is a debate (arising from institutional diversity, change, new impacts, new initiatives and new comparative scales) around identifying and adopting the best policies to be practiced and followed in assuring and accrediting the quality of higher education (OECD, 2010).

## 2.8 The World Level

The investigation reached the conclusion that establishing The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is the final stage in the Doctorate systematisation process to create 'systematic' understanding of quality in the world (see section 1.5 of chapter one and section 5.2 of chapter five and section 6.4.7 of chapter six and section 7.4.7 of chapter seven and see chapter nine and chapter eleven and chapter twelve). The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality would depend on systematisation of a global culture that is multi-cultural or even trans-cultural. This is because the systematisation culture of the proposed UN organisation would not be the only culture in the world. The research systematic culture would not be a substitutive culture for national and/or regional cultures but would complement them by creating the culture of systematisation in the world. Although I consider that one kind of global culture or global ethics for the whole world is somewhat

questionable, I argue that an overall systematisation of global culture would combine sets of sub-systematisations of national and/or regional cultures. This argument is discussed in section 5.7 and in section 5.8 of chapter five. The argument in these two sections is important in discussions about "the good for all" as the thesis approach to quality moves towards systematisation of the world. This argument supports the United Nations idea of a 'world community' (United Nations, 2007). This 'world community' is the overall system of quality in the world which combines all sub-systems of quality across the globe.

The Doctorate proposed organisation is to be located within the United Nations. However, this proposed organisation would not be a substitutive organisation for national and/or regional agencies and networks of quality but would complement them by creating systematic quality in the world. This analytical approach created 'systematic' understanding of quality of higher education in the world and created theories about new systems, new theoretical generalisations and new applications. This makes quality more systematic through envisaging, assessing and theorising the establishment of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for providing the international accreditation to higher education institutions across the globe. This ontological stance underpins this research assuming, as Crotty (2003) and Ritchie and Lewis (2003) argue, that such an orientation tends to place emphasis and value on human understanding, interpretive aspects of knowing about social world and the significance of the investigator's own interpretations and understandings of the phenomenon being studied. I argue that there is parallel conformance between the ontological and epistemological assumptions in this research, where both emerge from one philosophical stance. This subjectivist epistemology underpins generally the national, regional and international operations of quality, and underpins particularly in more detail via seven levels of analysis the operations of quality generated from the research fieldwork interviews in the UK and Egypt (see chapter six and chapter seven) in order to strengthen the validity and reliability of the wider research generated.

I investigated many existing definitions of quality mentioned in the literature in section 5.2 of chapter two. However, I adopt my own understanding of quality based on the notion of systematisation and have therefor set new terminology in this regard as this terminology is crucial to describing the final stage of the systematisation process which underpins the

analysis in chapters 2 – 12. I did so to enable partners and beneficiaries to understand my systematisation of quality (i.e. to help them understand my new 'systematic' formulation of quality). The first phase of systems analysis within this research interrogates quality of higher education in the world. I do so through investigating the nature of the evidence that current operations of quality are, or are not, adequate for systematisation. I found that there is a need to create and operate a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. While I did this I revealed the strengths of arguments that the characteristics of the UN and UNESCO can assist in creating and operating a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality.

To exemplify this, the international perspective comprises the initiatives and calls adopted by international organisations (including the International Association of Universities (IAU), The Organisation for Economic and Cooperation Development (OECD), the World Bank, the International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE), the United Nations (UN) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) for systematisation of Quality. An instance is the initiative of the INQAAHE on the need for developing formal qualifications for those who work in the field of quality inside HEIs and/or agencies of quality (INQAAHE, 2008 a). There are about 16 professionals from around world beginning to write course material with an aim for providing qualifications on quality.

It is worth mentioning that there is a difference between the INQAAHE and the suggested initiative of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of quality operated via the United Nations. The main purpose (www.inqaahe.org) of the INQAAHE is to collect and disseminate information on the current and developing theory and practice in the assessment, improvement and maintenance of quality in higher education. It is a network connecting the agencies of quality, with a view that it does not conduct accreditation on HEIs. But the main purposes of the suggested initiative of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality operated via the United Nations are to internationally assure and accredit the quality of HEIs around the world, and to address global needs and priorities as a multidimensional international organisation within the systematic structure of the UN. The INQAAHE harmonises the work between agencies of quality while the United Nations

Organisation for Systematisation of Quality operated via the United Nations is to give the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe.

From an international perspective, there are challenges facing HEIs set out by international organisations. Some of these include the need for: increasing rates of successful student participation; maintaining high quality of learning and teaching, research and community service; creating successful models of financial investment; providing higher education relevant to national, regional and international needs; obtaining public support and international recognition; reinventing governance structures and institutional management; balancing the need for engaging in international competitions and international co-operation while maintaining capacity building; disseminating knowledge, experience and attitudes about intercultural dialogue, international peace, justice, democracy, human rights, safety and security; and analysing the development of current trajectories and processes of economic, political and social globalisation in terms of governance at global level through exploring and understanding theories of international relations, reconstituting international relations, understanding the educational multilateralism and its transformations, exploring the international marketization of higher education; and undertaking an evidence-based dialogue on issues between higher education, development and trade in developed and developing countries (IAU 2001; Dodds, 2005; Bassett, 2006; Johansson, 2007; Mundy, 2007; INQAAHE, 2008 b; and Lenn, 2008).

In this context, the OECD (2005) has elaborated guidelines on quality provision in cross-border higher education. These guidelines aim at serving as an educational response to the growing commercialisation of higher education. They also seek to: address key higher education issues in a globalising society; be equally relevant for developed and developing countries; propose tools and a synthesis of best practices that can assist member states in assessing the quality of higher education provided across borders; and protect students and other beneficiaries from low-quality provision. These guidelines address six types of beneficiaries in higher education: governments; HEIs; academic staff; students; agencies of quality; and academic and professional bodies. They also provide a set of orientations to practitioners and seek to promote mutual trust and international cooperation between providers and receivers of cross-border higher education. In adopting this international

perspective, these international organisations have proposed and opened an international dialogue designed to bring together heads of HEIs and major intergovernmental agencies whose policies affect higher education around the world. This dialogue has investigated the responsibilities for, and roles of higher education and research in addressing local and global needs.

Meanwhile the UNESCO has held three forums for international quality assurance, accreditation and the recognition of qualifications in 2002, 2004, and 2007 which asserted that quality assurance is the systematic review of educational programmes directed to: ensuring that acceptable standards of education, scholarship and infrastructure are being maintained; promoting capacity-building at regional and national levels of quality; and providing a platform for dialogue between international frameworks dealing with quality assurance, accreditation and the recognition of qualifications (UNESCO, 2007).

In spite of such international calls and perspectives on internationalising quality, to the best of my knowledge there has been no investigation or research conducted focussed on the means to fulfil these needs, respond to these calls or assess this international perspective. Acting on this knowledge base, this research attempts to meet these needs, respond to these calls, fill this gap in knowledge and achieve this international perspective through investigating the need for creating and operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. Once the research investigation proved that there is a need for this organisation, the research moves to articulate a theorisation for establishing this organisation within the systematic structure of the UN for providing international accreditation to HEIs across the globe.

The research investigation is applied generally across national, regional and international operations of quality, and applied particularly in two case studies aimed at drawing the development of current operations of quality in the UK and Egypt (with a view to assessing the need for systematisation of quality in the world). These two countries have been selected for this research for the following reasons.

1. The settings provide a distinct cultural contrast – particularly in educational, demographic, religious, social, economic, political, environmental and daily lifestyle terms.
2. The settings belong to internationally different classifications, where the UK is a developed country and Egypt is a developing country.
3. The settings represent different visions and operations of quality.
4. The settings are designed to provide two detailed cases in which, for each country's system, information will be assessed through the seven-fold analysis typology applied so as to produce a rigorous interpretation of current operations in the development of quality in each country, with exploring the need for systematisation of quality.
5. The settings offered the best access to the researcher: the UK is the country in which the research has been conducted and Egypt is the country where the researcher is from.

## 2.9 Summary of Chapter Two

To sum up, the adopted analytical method of literature review has not been chosen because I preferred. I have carefully selected this method of analysis for their suitability in addressing the research questions and for their suitability with the nature of research and with its breadth and depth global scale. Clearly, no educational research is perfect as each has its strengths and limitations but I have now done my best to make this research as valid and reliable as possible. However, with the research overall seven typologies, after the research five typologies of the research first phase of systems analysis created the research sixth typology of the research second phase of systems design, I can argue that the research sixth typologies combined analytically between the smallest level of analysis in the world (which is the individual level) and the largest level of analysis in the world (which is the world level). That is why the research generalizability of the three-fold typology is representational, referential and theoretical allowing a possibility for the research implications to be applied in any context across the globe (see section 3.2.10 of chapter three). Although I am clear about the research limitations, I see that the research topic, its nature, its particular design and methodology, its breadth and depth of the global scale and its seven typologies of analysis and design make this research unique and original.

# Chapter Three

# Design

## 3.1 Introduction

This chapter constitutes the research design. It discusses conceptual and practical elements related to the design of the research. The chapter starts with explication sets out the research ontology, epistemology, questions, aims and objectives that arise. The chapter then moves to discuss the research design through: the methodological stance and approach; methods of data/information collection; methods of data/information analysis followed by other issues such as the case study approach, sampling, generalizability, validity, reliability and ethical considerations. Finally, the chapter folds its pages with an accurate and explicit summary.

## 3.2 Research Design

A good qualitative research study design is one which has a clearly defined purpose including coherence between the research questions and research methods or proposed approaches (Mason, 1996). Maykut and Morehouse (1994) explain this in that the good qualitative research design is realistic, generates valid and reliable data, and can be achieved within the available resources. Since educational research always involves an element (s) of the unknown, the research design needs to be flexible. The main methodological device framing this research is depending principally documentary analysis in addition to the research fieldwork interviews in the UK and Egypt.

This research is located within a broadly qualitative methodology, using a documentary systems analysis and design methodology, with a complementary case study approach with document analysis and semi-structured interviews as methods of data collection, utilizing qualitative data and approaches in all its components. Although mainly qualitative, document analysis, for example, uses both quantitative and qualitative operations on the text, taking account of the frequency of issues as well as their nature. In analysing interview data also, a

limited amount of quantification is used, such as numbers and quantities like how many people make similar comments. It is argued that the interpretive methodology has strengths but greater strength comes from its appropriate optimisation. The research systems analysis and design methodology is mainly, and the research two case studies can be seen as complementary approaches for further strength and depth to the research generalizability and implications. In addition, combined methods can have greater impact as a persuasive approach to policy-makers. This is because they both form an analytical story that is often can be used for illustrative purposes to them.

### 3.2.1 Research Ontology

The most important thing underpinning my Doctorate is the fact that I have created a different understanding of quality which I call **"my '*systematic*' understanding of quality"**. Section 1.5 of chapter one makes it clear that the term 'quality' in this research is different from other understandings of quality (see section 5.3 and section 5.5 of chapter five). 'Quality' in my understanding is an overall systematisation which combines set of sub-systematisations for accrediting the quality of HEIs. This systematic understanding of quality is my ontology. That is why I called for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality as the overall systematisation which combines all other sub-systematisations of quality in the world (see chapter four). This means that the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality would complement national and regional levels of quality by creating global systematic understanding of quality. In this case the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to work in addition to national and regional levels of quality, and also create systematic understanding of quality in the world. Therefore I argue that my 'systematic' understanding of quality is '*systematic'* practice that systematises all levels of quality in the world.

In my interpretative approach, my main concern is to understand the social context in which experts produce and reproduce and interpret their realties as social actors to make sense of systematisation of quality. This is supported by Crotty (1998) who argues that social reality of social relationships is embedded in the concepts that are used by participants in social contexts to talk about their world. The Doctorate approach of 'systematic' understanding of

quality is based on ontology which sees social actors identity forming and informing their understandings, interpretations, perceptions, attitudes, beliefs, views, experiences, accounts, stories, narratives, behaviours, actions, reactions, interactions, social relations and processes where social and cultural practices are seen as multiple realities of constructed meanings. I used this because I consider that social reality is regarded as the product of processes by which individuals interpret the conditions in which they find themselves. This ontological view is based on the assumption that the study of reality is rooted in the individual interpretations.

I used an interpretative approach to my qualitative Doctorate because I want to capture experts' perceptions and interpretations of 'systematic' understanding of quality. This subjective evidence, as Mason (2002) argues, would assure the objective evidence generated from documents and the literature review (see chapter two and chapter six and chapter seven). Both of the subjective evidence and the objective evidence complete each other that they are harmonised. They both confirm the importance of 'systematic' understanding of quality. While the subjective evidence has been generated from the research field work, the objective evidence has been generated from documents and the broader academic literature.

The ontology stimulating my Doctorate comes in a time that it is no longer geographical factors which govern and lead the monopoly of knowledge, but quality. 'Systematic' understanding of quality enables nations' gifted individuals to interact with, and contribute to, national knowledge creation. Throughout the last decades, many nations have established agencies for quality. Discussions are currently being conducted across the world about mutual recognition, perhaps indicating the need for new global creation represented in a 'systematic' understanding of quality that links 'lower' order levels into 'higher' order level. However, I argue that the level of quality of higher education in developing countries does not qualify them to conduct agreements of mutual recognition with the developed countries, due to the gap between the two levels of quality.

The current ontological picture of quality worldwide has national and regional levels. The existence of national and regional levels of quality and absence of 'systematic' understanding of quality is the ontological problem of this Doctorate. Not only the absence of 'systematic'

understanding of quality but also the negative aspects represented in randomness resulting from this absence are also factors to conduct this investigation. The current ontological picture of quality across the globe lacks systematisation. There is no systematisation of quality that can manipulate and operate quality of higher education in the world. This is a global ontological problem. The ontological problem is not only the absence of 'systematic' understanding of quality but also the negative effects resulting from this absence particularly on developing countries. If this ontological problem continues to exist, the gap between the quality of higher education in developed and developing countries will continue to exist too. Investigating this ontological problem on the 'systematic' understanding of quality could generate conclusions whether the ontological picture of quality worldwide needs systematisation to be completed or that this current ontological picture is already completed. I argue that creating 'systematic' understanding of quality of higher education in the world is important. To solve this ontological problem, I conduct this investigation which created the final stage of the systematisation process which links 'lower' order levels into 'higher' order level.

I conducted qualitative research concerned primarily with processes and uncovering the meanings of how people see the world. It is analytical research based on documents and fieldwork, and builds abstractions, theories and generalisations from data and details. The research draws upon different references to view and analyse policies being studied and reasoning why the current global context of quality is not harmonised. The research fulfils the building of quality worldwide by creating 'systematic' understanding of quality. This achievement can overcome the negative aspects resulting from the current global ontological problem of randomness of quality and the absence of the 'systematic' understanding of quality particularly on developing countries.

I want to stress that the ontology of a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is not to be substitutive ontology of national and/or regional quality but it works in addition to them so the world has national, regional and international level of quality. An example explaining this is that certain national higher education institution can obtain the national accreditation from its national agency for quality. But if a higher education

institution desires to obtain the international accreditation, it is through The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality.

### 3.2.2 Research Epistemology

I use qualitative research design approach because my aims are to explore and understand 'systematic' quality in a useful manner which would be of value to partners and beneficiaries. This indicates how and why the practices of the research participants are understood. To attain these aims, I created a space for experts to discuss their views and perceptions of 'systematic' understanding of quality of higher education in the world, and what it means to them. I argue that a qualitative research design is useful for answering my research questions. This means that the research addresses the experts' perceptions on 'systematic' understanding of quality from a sociological point of view. Up to now, the literature reveals no evidence that systematisation of quality has been investigated. My Doctorate addresses how 'systematic' understanding of quality is perceived and socially constructed by experts.

As qualitative research is fundamentally interpretative, as noted by Marshal and Rossman (1999), and that social constructivism is often combined with interpretivism, as argued by Creswell (2003). I am interpreting the meaning of systematisation of quality and the socially constructed understandings of these meanings which the experts hold of the world in which they live and work. This understanding is based on the subjective meaning of their subjective experiences on 'systematic' understanding of quality. This subjective evidence is accompanied with objective evidence generated from the naturally occurring data in documents and the literature. Both of the subjective evidence and the objective evidence generated are harmonised and inform the importance of 'systematic' understanding of quality (see section 3.2.10 of chapter three).

To access the meaning of 'systematic' understanding of quality, I established, as Ritchie and Lewis (2003) recommend, a rapport between the participants and myself. This is because qualitative research allows me to come face to face with my data sources. In addition, qualitative research allows the experts to depict their experiences in their own words, and following their own sense of what is important and relevant to them. This allows me to depict

these experiences in a consistent and coherent manner. This is because, as Mason (2002) mentions, subjective meanings are negotiated socially.

My intention in using qualitative research is to rely on the participants' own experiences and perceptions about 'systematic' understanding of quality. I use social constructionism as the epistemological basis of my Doctorate. This is because in the constructionist view, as Cresswell (1998 and 2003) argues, meaning is not discovered but constructed, then developed and transmitted in the social context. This allows for the meaningful reality to depend on participants' practices. This means that the reality is constructed in and out of the interaction between human beings and their world as they engage with the world they are interpreting. The meanings and understandings are constructed and informed by the social interaction between the participants and myself during the interview process. This epistemological view is based on the assumption, as argued by Crotty (1998 and 2003), that knowledge is the result of the interaction and relationship between the knower and the known.

The design of my Doctorate is based on an epistemology, as Mason (2002) explains, which argues that knowledge can be known through cultural and social settings, where claims and/or assumptions are constructed. I am committed to understand socially how and why experts construct their perceptions about 'systematic' understanding of quality. The data presented and analysed in my Doctorate illustrate these epistemological views.

To exemplify this, a documentary-based systems analysis and design methodology including suitable, valid and reliable data analysis methods have been directed to investigating systematisation of quality of higher education in the world. I did so through researching current operations in development of quality across national, regional and international boundaries. My investigation reached the conclusion that establishing The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is the final stage of the Doctorate systematisation process to create this systematisation (see section 1.5 of chapter one and section 2.8 of chapter two and section 6.4.7 of chapter six and section 7.4.7 of chapter seven and see chapter nine). This proposed organisation is to be located within the United Nations. However, the research proposed UN organisation would not be a substitutive organisation for national and/or

regional agencies and networks of quality but would complement them by creating 'systematic' understanding of quality in the world.

### 3.2.3 Research Questions

Chapter one has identified the rationale for conducting this investigation due to the absence of the international quality and the problems resulting from this absence particularly on developing countries. The most notably issues are mutual recognitions and memoranda of understanding, the poor reputation and absence of trust in higher education qualifications in developing countries in compare to developed countries. In addition to these is the crisis that this gap can increase the numbers of unemployment in developing countries due to lack of trust in graduates' qualifications. Also the need for harmonising and fulfilling the international picture of quality in the world by creating the international level is another issue. Moreover, the need to investigate how the new international level of quality will work and how it will be governed the matter which creates the need to construct this and sort out these problems and meet this gap further. The expected outcomes and benefits of answering these questions and overcoming these problems and meeting this gap could have strategic impact of global scale on the economic, political and social life of people in all countries.

As the developing countries are not alone in facing these problems (although of the fatal and dreadful negative impact on these countries), the research draws upon the wider international experience of quality and examines their current operations and development in the developed and developing countries and regions around the world. This can create global impact for the research implications resulted from answering the research questions. The main compound question of this research is to investigate the need for systematisation of quality. Having the investigation proved that there is a need for systematisation of quality, the research question seeks further interrogation on how a theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the systematic structure of the UN can be articulated. Specifically, the research addresses six questions: four questions interrogate the research first phase of systems analysis; and the other two questions interrogate the research second phase of systems design. This is because the investigation of this research is based on two phases and each raises certain questions. These are as follows.

*Questions of the research first phase (chapters 2 - 12)*

The first phase of systems analysis within this research interrogates the following four questions.

1. What are the current operations characterising the development of quality?
2. What is the nature of the evidence that current operations of quality are, or are not, adequate for systematisation?
3. Is there a need to create and operate a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality?
4. What are the strengths of arguments that the characteristics of the UN and UNESCO can assist in creating and operating a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality?

*Questions of the research second phase (chapters 13 - 14)*

Having the investigation of the research first phase (systems analysis) proved that there is a need for systematisation of Quality, the research second phase of systems design interrogates the following two questions.

1. What is the theorisation of establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality?
2. What is the future of systematisation of Quality?

### 3.2.4 Research Aims and Objectives

The main compound aim of this research, therefore, is to investigate (in the light of the international context of quality in general and the research case studies of the UK and Egypt in particular) the need for 'systematic' understanding of quality. Having the investigation proved that there is a need for systematisation, the research compound aim penetrates further attainment to articulate a theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the structure of the UN. Based on a documentary systems analysis and design methodology, seven objectives guide the two phases of this research.

Five objectives lead the research first phase of systems analysis and the other two objectives illuminate the research second phase of systems design. These are as follows.

*Objectives of the research first phase (chapters 2 - 12)*

The research first phase of systems analysis targets the following five objectives.

1. Investigating current operations characterising the development of quality.
2. Analysing the nature and characteristics of regional agencies and networks of quality.
3. Assessing the nature of the evidence that current operations of quality are, or are not, adequate and suitable for internationalisation.
4. Arguing how the nature and characteristics of the UN and UNESCO can assist in creating and operating Systematisation of Quality with indicating the strengths of arguments that they should do so.
5. Assessing the need for creating and operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality.

*Objectives of the research second phase (chapters 13 - 14)*

Having the investigation of the research first phase of systems analysis proved that there is a need for systematisation of quality, the research second phase (systems design) tries to achieve the following two objectives.

6. Theorising the process of establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality.
7. Envisioning the future of systematisation of quality.

### 3.2.5 The Methodological Stance of the Research

I have previously indicated in chapter one that there is no best or super methodology. The best methodology is the one that suites the nature of the research interrogation, its aims and objectives. This means that the most suitable to the nature of the research, the supreme the methodology is. However, the recent history of educational research has been dominated by the apparent conflict between positivist and interpretivist paradigms perceived as mutually antagonistic ideal-types. Yet, both traditions are essentially concerned with understanding

phenomena but through two different lenses (Ernest, 1994; Oakley, 2000; Pring, 2000; Cohen *et al*., 2007; Ritchie and Lewis, 2007; and Thomas, 2009).

Bryman (2008) distinguishes between two main ontological positions: objectivism, which is closely linked to positivism and natural science disciplines, and constructivism, which is closely linked to interpretivism and social science research. This study adopts an interpretive approach as the researcher considers that people have an active role in constructing social reality and social structures and that categories and concepts within society are socially constructed, and these phenomena are in a state of flux as people and society change. Located within an interpretive methodology, this research seeks to understand the perceptions of participants (administrative and academic staff) on the need for systematisation of quality and articulating a theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the structure of the UN. I recognize that participants may have different views or definitions on the research realisation as they may seek to make sense of or interpret these phenomena. I considered this recognition and I sent the interview schedule accompanied with the chapter of the research design and methodology to the participants before running the interviews for avoiding ambiguities and achieve strong and deep clarifications.

The qualitative methodology is viewed as suitable as I consider that there are multiple interpretations on events and situations (Quality worldwide and the need for a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality), and that reality may be complicated for anyone who is not specialised in quality. With this sense, writers (Sparkes 1992; Ernest, 1994; Randor, 1994; Usher; 1996; Smeyers, 2001; Robson, 2002; Alexander, 2006; Black, 2006; Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006; and Cohen *et al*., 2007) conclude that an interpretive approach is primarily concerned with human understanding, interpretation and intersubjectivity in essence lived experience or lived truth in its natural social context from the standpoint of individuals who are part of the on-going action being investigated.

However, subjectivity can be an issue in qualitative research. For this as Denzin and Lincoln (2000) advised, I take my precautions to overcome the risk of bias and subjectivity in largely qualitative forms of enquiry. These include: gathering multiple view points; and cross-

referencing cases within the sample together with other precautions to enhance validity and reliability and ensure rigour of the research analysis and implications discussed explicitly later in the research.

According to Usher (1996) researchers as interpreters must recognize their situatedness and must sometimes temporarily set aside their meanings, suspend their subjectivity, and assume the attitude of disinterested views. Usher goes further arguing that researchers cannot escape from their pre-understandings even temporarily. Far from being closed prejudices or biases, their pre-understandings, make them more open-minded as they are put at risk, tested and modified through the encounter with what they are trying to understand. So researchers should use them as the essential starting point for acquiring knowledge rather than bracketing them. Guba (1990) adds that knowledge is a human construction which is never certifiable as ultimately true but problematic and ever changing. If there are always many interpretations that can be made in an enquiry, and if there is no way by which the ultimate truth or falsity of these interpretations can be determined, so the researcher should take the position of a relativist, where relativism is the key to openness and the continuing search for generating one or a few constructions on which there is substantial consensus. Following Usher (1996), I have used my pre-understandings as the starting point for acquiring knowledge and was open-minded whilst conducting the study in the sense that those pre-understandings were put at risk, tested and modified through the research. Thus, I attempted as Thomas (2009) recommended to recognize my pre-understandings and sought to ensure that the research was conducted in such a way to avoid those pre-understandings becoming a determinant in the study.

### 3.2.6 Case Study

In this context and in the light of the taxonomy of method in the operation of quality set out in chapter two, it was decided to enhance the systems analysis part of the thesis through conducting two national case studies of quality in action, one in a country with a ‘developed’ higher education system, quality regime and economy (the UK) and the other in a ‘developing’ higher education system, quality regime and economy (Egypt) (OEDC, 2007). In particular, the aim was to depict in these contrasting settings how quality is being

conducted in terms of the seven levels of activity set out in Figure 9 (shaping the research design and methodology) in chapter four.

There are several reasons for selecting a case study approach. Case studies examine relationships between cause and effect but do not claim to establish a direct causal link. A strength point is that they enable researchers to observe effects in real contexts, recognizing that context is a powerful determinant of both causes and effects. Cohen *et al*. (2007) add another strength point that they provide fine-grain detail and are a means for seeing situations through the eyes of participants. They are widely used in organizational studies in the social sciences (Meyer, 2001). Classified under flexible design research, they are preferred as they have the advantage of using mixed-methods, often yielding quantitative and qualitative data, although qualitative data are almost invariably collected (Robson, 2002). Furthermore, Yin (2003) and Denscombe (2007) finalise that the multiplicity of the variables and sources of evidence that characterise a case study inquiry are a holistic approach which investigates the case as a whole, recognizing its real-life context, rather than dealing with isolated factors.

After a review of the literature, initial analysis of policy documents on current operations in the development of quality in the UK and Egypt and deciding the theoretical framework of the research (quality and its operations across national, regional and international boundaries), the research case study approach operated in two cycles: cycle one focused on the UK (University of Exeter) and cycle two on Egypt (Mansoura University) with the intention of getting insights from a comparative perspective not for comparative reason but to generate knowledge that can illustrate information on assessing the need for a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. It took the researcher around six months to conduct the field work in both countries with the UK field work conducted across June, July and August 2009, and Egypt field work conducted in September, October and November 2009. This shows that the research case studies using interviews and document analysis are very time and resource intensive. However; the output is worthwhile in terms of the evidence and rich data generated from such an approach.

Case study has been chosen as a complementary methodological approach to strengthen and deepen the analysis of assessing the need for ‘systematic’ understanding of quality. While

the rest of the research examines this need in general, the research case studies in the UK and Egypt investigate this need deeply through a seven-level model of analysis. The optimisation of this approach can create consistency and harmonisation (in case of agreement) between the naturally occurring data (in the research theoretical framework) and the generated data through interviews with administrative and academic participants from the UK and Egypt, or can create a rigorous discussion and debate in case of disagreement. The case study approach can be logic to underpin the research design (Mason, 2002).

Following this complementary approach, the research two case studies constitute a detailed investigation of the perceptions of administrative and academic staff in two institutions (University of Exeter in the UK and Mansoura University in Egypt) on the need for 'systematic' understanding of quality, with a view to articulate a theorisation (in case that there is a need for systematisation of quality) for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the structure of the UN. Interviews were conducted with staff for this reason, with a view to conduct analysis of the context and processes involved in the phenomenon under study. The selected cases have enabled me to develop detailed knowledge of the experience of participants on the research topic and an examination of the strengths and weaknesses of the existing systems of quality. Following this leaded to an identification of the research analysis and implications.

Building on the analysis from the available sources, the research two case studies used two kinds of data: naturally occurring data through documents and generated data through the research interviews and face to face open survey questionnaire. In following the methodology of the thesis, I have to draw on a range of sources all of which partial understanding the larger system and in doing so, they reflect the current operations in the development of quality in the UK and Egypt. These are the available sources right now.

The institutions of the research two case studies are represented in the University of Exeter in the UK and Mansoura University in Egypt (as these were the institutions to which I had access and feasible for research). One university in each country was chosen to discuss seven levels of analysis starting with the individual level and ending with the world level. The Graduate School of Education, University of Exeter was chosen from the UK context. Faculty

of Education, Mansoura University was chosen from the Egyptian context. Both of the two universities are sufficient to be good examples of their higher education systems, as they have similarities in that both of them are regional-located universities, governmental institutions and that they are not based in the capitals, and have differences in that they represent two contrasting contexts. Both of the two universities perform the duties the other universities in the two countries do of teaching and learning, research and community service.

Both of two cases constitute contrasting rich stories across the seven-level of analysis which strengthens the overall execution of systems analysis in this study. I conducted these two case studies with face to face semi-structured interviews with administrative and academic staff. The interviewees of the UK are administrative staff while the interviewees of Egypt are academic staff. The reason why the experts in the UK context were administrative staff and the experts in the Egyptian context were academic staff is that: the three roles of universities represented in the quality of the three branches of teaching and learning, research and community outreach and knowledge transfer are administered separately by administrative staff in the University of Exeter, while they are administered collectively by academic staff in Mansoura University. In the UK, three of four experts were from the administration of the University of Exeter representing one expert for quality in teaching and learning, one expert for the quality of research, one expert for the quality of community outreach and knowledge transfer; and the fourth expert was from the administration of the Graduate School of Education, University of Exeter representing the administration of quality in the school across the three branches. In Egypt the four experts interviewed operate quality in Mansoura University through managing Quality Assurance Unit (QAU) in Faculty of Education and Quality Assurance Centre (QAC) in Mansoura University.

The analysis of the collected data followed different levels of development to represent informed stories in every case. Both of the two stories have the same levels of analytical development. However, the two stories are not separated from each other. The analysis of the data indicates that the UK experience influenced the Egyptian context. Even when regional networks of quality started to emerge, the UK influence on Egypt continued. This influence is evident through the British experts who participate in the establishment of quality in Egypt.

The case studies are primarily documentary in method. However, they used semi-structured interviews (see Appendix A) with a purpose to supply analytical system information to supplement lacks of information and gaps in knowledge of the documentary sources. In addition, the intellectual contribution of my network relations with academic staff in both the University of Exeter and Mansoura University regarding the research topic contributed as a pilot investigation prior to the research fieldwork. The first task of the research interviews was to analyse the responses of the participants according to seven levels of analysis. In the areas of lack of information and gap in knowledge, the second task was to analyse the web sites of the Graduate School of Education, University of Exeter in the UK and the web site of the Faculty of Education, Mansoura University in Egypt. However, when the web site of the Egyptian context did not cover all the required information, field visits to the actual sites were conducted from the researcher. The process of reviewing the web sites was started by consulting official sources of information about the structure of quality in each context. From these, the naming conventions to identify different levels of institution were identified. Various web pages were then used to identify the actual processes of quality. These processes came from various sources, both official and unofficial: search engine university categories; individually maintained lists; and government information pages. It had been decided to focus upon the research aspect and, therefore, only to include the web pages with a significant research profile. Such a selection criteria would produce a useful investigation. Indeed, at the UK context there is published explicit information about the current operations of quality. It was necessary to invest significant time to decide this issue because of the differing structures and naming systems for quality in the two contexts.

An initial selection procedure had to be employed to make the task of analysing the websites manageable. This rather arbitrary decision was necessary to reduce the data to a manageable level and was arrived at after an initial survey. Following this step, the contexts were examined individually. The examination involved visiting selected institutional web sites for self-descriptive information, particularly about teaching and learning, research and community outreach and knowledge transfer; and attempting to find authoritative information sources for quality. Once the operations had been finalised, the next stage was to analyse their web site sizes. The Internet does offer access and is a promising new resource.

The first question to be asked about the search engine data was how well it matched reality. To decide this, selected sites were visited to judge whether the results were correct. The manual check was also used to ascertain whether there were any identifiable linguistic or technological factors influencing the degree of site coverage by the search engines. This gives greater importance of the coverage of web sites within the two boundaries.

Both of the investigation findings from the documentary analysis and the generalisation from the interviews confirm each other. The findings are based on data from documents, academic literature, the web sites of the two universities and qualitative interviews with eight key experts, four experts for each context. In addition to the interviews I examined institutional documents at both paper-based and electronic-based sites and visited the actual sites. Data derived from the interviews constitutes an important source for the current operations in the development of quality in the UK and Egypt. The methodological approach is inspired by the methods of qualitative case studies (Stake, 1995; Pring, 2000; Silverman, 2000; Gubrium and Holstein, 2001; Silverman, 2001; Trochim, 2001; Legard, 2003; Rubin and Rubin, 2005; Flick, 2006; and Schostak, 2006). The type of representation the case study revealed is advanced as it is not found in the literature. However, when it comes to Exeter, it is a kind of institution which operates quality very intensively in the three domains. Exeter is a good example because it tests quality in each area very fully.

- **Sample**

In the research case studies the UK has been chosen, as quality is operated by the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) representing a well-established enhanced system, contrasting with quality in Egypt which many reports have recommended required development of wider impact to allow the National Authority for Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Education (NAQAAE) more autonomy and flexibility (Said, 2001; Fahim and Sami, 2009; and OECD, 2010). British consultants have also been involved in establishing quality in Egypt (QAAP, 2007a) and thus the context in Egypt under influence of the UK context, which allow conducting a rich analysis and interpretation. This helps also in the research investigation as it combines evidences from two contrasting contexts in two different regions beside the evidences accumulated from the research theoretical framework. Thus, I aimed to take the

perceptions of participants from the UK and Egypt on the need for systematisation of quality and create a theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. Identifying these perceptions is thought to be helpful and rich as quality in the UK is well-established whereas it is still under development in Egypt. The intention is to use the experience of the UK and Egypt to generate knowledge for proposing implications aimed at completing the international building of quality worldwide.

Non-probability sampling was adopted as I have deliberately chosen the two universities (University of Exeter and Mansoura University) in the two countries (the UK and Egypt). This choice is due to several reasons: (1) I have chosen the University of Exeter because access to staff is easier as I am a doctoral researcher at this University; (2) Mansoura University was chosen as it is famous and one of the biggest universities in Egypt; (3) the research is very ambitious and thus it tried to start first with the findings of the research first phase before moving to the second phase, and choosing these two countries facilitates and harmonises this transition; (4) expense and time are limited on a PhD programme and that is why only two cases were selected for deep and detailed study; (5) non-probability sampling is suitable for case studies as they are feasible and rational; (6) purposive sampling has been used to access experts, i.e. those with in-depth knowledge about quality; and (7) both of the two universities of the research sample participated in the operations of quality in their respective countries.

The sampling process is based on qualitative dimension. It is not the numbers that affect the quality of generated information but the expertise and familiarity. Thus I conducted interviews with the experts who operate quality in the two universities. The initial plan was to interview four administrative and academic staff in each university. However, more interviews (face to face open survey questionnaire with 51 experts from Egypt) have been conducted as the researcher decided continuing interviewing experts in the context of Egypt as long as the naturally occurring data are not enough to cover the required information, due to the regime of quality in Egypt is still under development. Snowball sampling was also utilized as experts from the two contexts were asked to recommend administrative and academic staff involved/interested in the operations and development of quality in the two universities (Cohen *et al*., 2007). In the University of Exeter, interviews were conducted with

particularity to the operations of quality in the Graduate School of Education. The same approach was adopted in Mansoura University with particularity to the operations of quality in Faculty of Education. However, choosing these two sampling cases in these two particular sampling countries does not affect negatively the generalisation of the research implications. This because I analysed quality in the two cases across seven levels of analysis covering the individual level, programme level, department/faculty level, institutional level, national level, regional level and the international level. This model of analysis generated knowledge of connectedness, consistency and correlated nature that bring into combination the relation between the individual and international context and the co-between contexts. Because of the breadth and depth of the research unique typological scale analysis across seven levels, the research generalizability could have positive impact and applicability on the seven levels of analysis across national, regional and international boundaries.

Although Stensaker (2003) and Kis (2005) point out the precautions should be taken into considerations concerning the possibility of managers having an interest in creating a successful image of quality management to show a good impression of their own efforts, a mixed sample of administrative and academic staff was approached for two main reasons. First, the operations of quality are operated by the administration in the University of Exeter in the UK. Second, the academic staff operate quality in Mansoura University in Egypt. This created an additional feature to strengthen and deepen the contrast of the research contexts for adding a more value to the research analysis and interpretations. Furthermore, having a mixed sample allows for comparing the generated data from administrative staff with the generated data from academics. This can happen through comparing the perceptions of participants of the two contexts on issues under investigation. It is worth mentioning that in both cases, the administrative staff in the case of the UK hold high posts in operating quality in the Graduate School of Education and in the University of Exeter while academic staff in the case of Egypt hold posts doing teaching and research with management of (QAU) in Faculty of Education and (QAC) in Mansoura University.

- **Generalization**

The process of data collection and data analysis raised issues about the representativeness and generalizability. This process generated three types of representativeness and generalizability. The first type is representational, where the first, second and third levels of analysis on the current operations in the development of internal quality in the Graduate School of Education in the University of Exeter in the UK, and in Faculty of Education, Mansoura University in Egypt can be applied on the other faculties and schools in the two universities. The second type is referential, where the fourth level of analysis on the current operations in the development of quality in the University of Exeter in the UK and Mansoura University in Egypt can be applied on the other universities in the two countries. The third type is theoretical, where the fifth level of analysis on the current operations in the development of quality in the UK and Egypt can be applied on the other countries. This draws a conclusion that representativeness and generalizability in social institutions oppose that within computer system. In engineering, computer and IT, systems representativeness and generalizability are theoretical, but in these social institutions the case studies reveal that there are three levels of representativeness and generalizability (representational, referential and theoretical) due to the social factor in the contexts.

The extent to which the findings of this study can be applied to people or settings more widely may be interrogative (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1993). Although the research fieldwork used the non-probability sampling, the research is in a strong position to make generalisations. The breaths and depth of the research unique way of a seven-level analysis typology creates this strong position. While the purpose of generalization is attached to the logic and power of probability sampling, in-depth understanding is attached to non-probability sampling (Patton, 2002). According to the research analysis typology, I argue that the proposals and implications of this study can be implemented in the seven levels of analysis across national, regional and international boundaries. This is due to the similarities between the seven levels of analysis in the UK with the similar levels in the developed countries, and the similarities between the seven levels of analysis in Egypt and the similar levels in the developing countries, following similar legislative framework respectively on quality. So, the case of the UK represented in the University of Exeter and the case of Egypt represented in Mansoura University might be a typical case, as proposed in Denscombe (2002), with similarities that warrant such generalisations.

### 3.2.7 Data/information Collection Methods

The choice of data collection methods depends on the nature of research questions, research context, research structure and research timeframe (Charmaz, 2006). In this research, the selected data collection methods include: generated knowledge through meetings and discussions with my supervisors; conduct of interviews in the two case study countries; intellectual contribution of my network relations; and my intellectual analytical perspective and contribution on the documentary systems analysis methodology including methods designed to capture naturally occurring documentary data.

- **Documents**

Documents and semi-structured interviews have been used as the principal methods of data/information collection. The research has used a combination of different methods to map out and explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour. The aim is to study phenomena from more than one standpoint as a way of gaining different insights into the same situation (Yin, 2003; Cohen *et al*., 2007; and Lacey and Luff, 2007). I have collected government policy documents, guidelines, reports and much of the broader academic literature on current operations in the development of quality across national, regional and international boundaries in general; and documents from the selected universities to cover the research two case studies in particular.

The research depends on the naturally occurring knowledge in its data collection methods. Examples of naturally occurring data include: key policy documents from agencies and organisations of quality; key policy documents from the IAU, OECD, the World Bank, the INQAAHE, the UN system and UNESCO; reports on quality from governmental and non-governmental organizations; broader academic literature; and key policy documents from institutional and national reports, books and bulletins. The main languages used in the documents captured are English and Arabic.

An important goal of this research was to produce a valid and reliable documentary analysis. Accumulating a large amount of documentary data was targeted in order to produce a rigorous interpretation and construction of current operations in the development of quality, derived from documentary systems analysis methodology. Many of these documents and reports are found and published on the web sites of HEIs, agencies and networks of quality, IAU, OECD, The World Bank, the INQAAHE, the UN system and UNESCO. Some of these documents, reports and much of the broader academic literature are found in libraries of the University of Exeter. The important sources are found at the library of the Institute of Education, University of London, and on the Internet.

Choosing between policy documents, governmental and non-governmental documents, reports and broader academic literature depends primarily on which type of data is best illuminates the research topic, drawing on practical considerations and the ontological and epistemological orientation of the research. I depended on these documents due to: the nature of the research questions, aims and objectives; the research subject matter (I needed to understand complex settings and issues of a national, regional and international nature in parallel with the settings of the related case studies); and the theories, policies, practices, structures and systems addressed in the research. An explanation was required of the seven-level settings of quality in the UK and Egypt as well as regional and international initiatives from agencies and networks such as IAU, OECD, the World Bank, the INQAAHE, the UN system and UNESCO. These latter organisations denote that research systems and settings are geographically dispersed and highly diverse.

- **Interviews**

Semi-structured interviews have been used as a complementary method of data collection on the perceptions of administrative and academic staff on the need for Systematisation of Quality, and according to Breakwell (2006) a systematic approach has been adopted in their description, conduct and analysis to maximize the chance of securing meaningful, valid and reliable conclusions. Although the interviewer using this technique has some established questions for investigation, the method allows for exploring emergent themes and ideas. As Arksey and Knight (1999) point out, I used a standardized schedule but I was free to pursue

and probe for novel and relevant information through additional questions (see Appendix A) Strength points of the face to face semi-structured interviews in this study are that first, they offered the possibility of modifying the line of enquiry, following up interesting responses and investigating underlying motives. Second, they provided non-verbal clues which helped in understanding the verbal response, possibly changing or even, in extreme cases, reversing its meaning. Third, they provide rich and highly illuminating material compared with other methods of data collection. Fourth, the interviewer could explain misunderstandings, as the same question may have different meanings to different people. Robson (2002) and Cohen *et al*. (2007) argue that interviews are better than questionnaires for handling more difficult and open-ended questions such as those included in this study. Fifth, interviews enabled me to gather information that could not be obtained by other methods. Surveys, for example, might offer mass data about a particular issue but they lack the depth of understanding that interviews provide (Tierney and Dilley, 2002), and the UK case study is an example of this. The operations of quality in the UK are well-established and there are massive surveys and reports conducted. Interviews come to strengthen and deepen the understanding of this case by focusing on certain issues and dimensions related to the research area. A different and contrast example is that the operations of quality in Egypt are still under development and only few reports cover these operations. So the research interviews in Egypt met the gap in knowledge and lack in information by generating knowledge on areas of lacks not covered by the reports, surveys or even by the broader academic literature. That is why the research case study in Egypt was specified by a face to face open survey questionnaire with 51 key experts to bridge this gap. A sixth and final major strength point of interviews is what Gal *et al*. (2003) point out of their adaptability, as researchers can follow up answers to obtain more information as well as clarifying vague statements. They are also helpful in building trust and rapport with respondents, making it possible to obtain information that the interviewee probably would not reveal through other methods.

However, there are issues with interviews. They are money and time-consuming and require careful preparation. Notes have to be written up; tapes transcribed, taking much time, especially with conducting interviews in a highly contrasted and dispersed contexts. Analysis of these transcriptions is also time-eater. However, I had good closure skills and was able to go back to the questions on schedule. Although the main issue of interviews is being time-

consuming, Robson (2002) argues that time-consuming issue can be overcome by time planning. In spite of this, time planning requires a researcher of a crucial skill of successful enquiry in all research, and that the breadth and depth of the data generated from the research interviews in the UK and Egypt is worth the time, money and effort.

Considering the argument of Gal *et al*. (2003) and Cohen *et al*. (2007) that interviews are prone to subjectivity and bias on the part of the interviewer, several precautions have been taken to avoid these. I used established questions and that these questions have been asked in the same order. The fact that the interviewer is, to some extent, an insider in both places helped build trust and rapport between interviewees and the researcher and facilitated the flow of data. Most important, participants were assured that there is no wrong or right answer; it is their perceptions which matters.

Further attention was paid to the construction of the interview schedule. First, I began to simplify my research questions (e.g. this research investigates the need for systematisation of quality via articulating a theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the structure of the UN: What is your comment on the need for creating this new era of international development? into a form of ( series of questions) that can be used with interviewees (e.g. 1- Do you see that current operations in the development of quality are in need for Systematisation? 2- What is your impression on that establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can create a highly international quality higher education of national relevance and global significance? What is your comment on establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the structure of the UN for conducting international accreditation to HEIs across the globe? I began with a wide range of questions with a direct bearing on my research with questions about the need for internationalisation of quality. I listed all the questions I thought needed answering, compiling them into three dimensions including: teaching and learning, research and community outreach and knowledge transfer, constituting a long schedule. Thus, I began to sort through them, deleting any unlikely to contribute towards answering my research questions. I grouped the questions concerned with the same topic and then checked that the range of questions with which I have left was sufficient to cover the topic thoroughly. Having made sure that the range of questions was sufficient as Arksey and

Knight (1999) indicate, I revised individual questions so that the schedule used main questions to begin and guide the conversation with follow up questions to pursue implications. Probes were used, asking participants as Drever (1995) and Warren (2002) point out to clarify and explain and also prompts directed towards what may have been overlooked. Overall, the schedule of the research interviews in the UK and Egypt is intended to have a logical sequence to allow interviewees develop a coherent pattern of thought on the need for a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for using this generated knowledge; and thought on a seven level analysis typology starting from the individual level and ending with the international level.

- **Pilot Research**

I learned much from the experience of data collection period, and as Breakwell (2006) argues that properly conducted pilot work pays off, as an early version of investigation on the need for systematisation of quality and articulating theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality was piloted in February 2008 through face to face conversations with three academic staff from the University of Exeter in the UK and through telephone conversations with three academic staff from higher education in Egypt. This piloting and early investigation work minimizes the risk of finding part-way through the study that a vital issue has been ignored or that certain questions cannot be understood.

There are several lessons learned from the research piloting and early investigation methods for data collection. First, I learned from this early investigation that interviewing for collecting data should be quite different from ordinary conversations, requiring skills of being an active listener, the ability of taking notes while listening and not impose my ideas (to keep neutral and avoid bias) on the interviewees. Second, I learned also that the interviewer should have the ability to use probes and follow up questions to discover further information and follow up new emergent themes and/or issues. Third, I learned that the manipulation of quality in the University of Exeter is in the hand of the administration while the manipulation of quality in the case of Egypt is in the hand of academic staff, the matter that not only should be taken into my consideration but also constitutes a deeply contrasting two different contexts as an area for strong and deep interpretation across the breadth and depth of the research

seven levels of analysis typology. Fourth, I learned that it is better to send first (and before conducting the interview) an updated version of the interview schedule accompanied with additional explicit information on the nature and process of my research to the participants for preparing themselves, familiarising themselves with the research topic and deepening their thought, the matter which could attain the aimed impact of the knowledge generated rather than surprising the participants with the interview schedule. Fifth and most important, I learned that it is necessary for the research to specify separately the case of Egypt by conducting face to face open survey questionnaire with experts in quality to meet the lack and gap of information and knowledge resulted from the limited number of reports and surveys of quality in Egypt as the operations are new and still under development. This creates more depth to add more contrast to the research two different contexts. The two pictures of the research two contexts are different. The information and knowledge covering quality in the research two contexts of the UK and Egypt are not the same. The UK context is rich and full of reports, surveys and the broader academic literature. This may be due to the high and rich level of research in the UK, and because that quality in the UK is well-established while quality in Egypt is still in the stage of development. Also the nature of research in Egypt and the level of its quality may be questionable. That is why I decided to bridge this gab and meet this lack through singling the case of Egypt with a face to face open survey questionnaire with 51 experts in quality as a need arises to do that, and not to do the same thing with the case of the UK as no need arises.

Note taking were used to decide on a preferred method for providing adequate data. Tape recording was realised to be better (as Gal *et al*., 2003 argued) when conducting the research main interviews as it is possible to gain insights into how interviewees handled questions and become aware of problems that escaped them during the interview itself. However, I realised that the use of tape recording will not eliminate the need for notes but it has more advantage (as Patton, 2002 clarified) in that it allows me to concentrate with the research participants and being strategic instead in being busy and spending the time in taking notes. In addition to this, I learned that tape recording helps greatly especially in categorizing and analysing data.

The research piloting and early investigation methods of data collection helped in devising my final interview schedule. Preliminary data generated through piloting gave valuable insights which aided the preparation of the final interview schedule. Having that mix of respondents added more value since their different cultures enriched the data and gave deep insights to the researcher, as there are variations in the operations of quality in the research two case studies in the UK and Egypt. Based on the results of the research piloting and early investigation methods of data collection, the final version of the interview schedule was prepared after a full review of the broader literature and analysis of policy documents on current operations on the development of quality across national, regional and international boundaries to connect the research two case studies with the research global picture of quality, reflecting the evolving nature of qualitative research.

Going in parallel with what Teijlingen (2002) point out, the research piloting and early investigation methods of data collection are beneficial in several ways. First, they develop and test the adequacy of the research instruments. Second, they explore and identify logistical problems which might happen using proposed methods. Third, they collect preliminary data. Fourth, they assess the proposed data analysis techniques to uncover potential problems. Fifth and finally, they provided me with the opportunity of modifying the words and the order of the questions according to the provided feedback. Having reached the final version of the research main interview schedule, interviews were conducted between June and November 2009 in the UK and Egypt, with a notice that each case took three months respectively.

### 3.2.8 Data/information Analysis Procedures

Data analysis is the most challenging and exciting stage of conducting qualitative research, and is reliant on the creativity and the intelligence of the researcher (Riessman, 1993). The research data analysis process is documentary, accompanied with a complementary face to face semi-structured interviews analysis, and develops seven complementary and distinctive levels for investigating current national, regional and international operations of quality. Methods of analysis used in this research are as follows.

- **Intellectual Analysis**

Intellectual analysis is the researcher's intellectual analytical contribution in relation to the available research resources and materials so as to create, interpretatively and critically, an original and significant intellectual contribution to knowledge. The overall intellectual analysis underpins several specific perspectives. The intellectual analysis in this research depicts also the different perspectives of experts from the UK and Egypt. As required in this investigation, the generated data from interviews provided significant interpretations on both current operations in the development of quality in the UK and Egypt and assessing whether there is a need for 'systematic' understanding of quality.

- **Conversation Analysis**

Conversation analysis occurred in this research through the discussions with my supervisors and my network relations as a contribution generating, interpretatively and critically, an original and significant intellectual contribution to knowledge around the research topic.

- **Documentary Analysis**

Documentary analysis is the careful examination of documents and their content in order to draw conclusions about the social circumstances in which the documents are produced and read (Bloor and Wood, 2006). Its main techniques include: content analysis in order to describe the characteristics of the documents; interpretative analysis in order to explore the meaning within the content; and critical analysis in order to focus on the relationship between the documents and the aspects of social structures (Ibid). It involves also the examination of the related research settings and issues via governmental and non-governmental documentations, books, reports, bulletins and broader academic literature covering national, regional, international levels in order to generate interpretatively and critically an original and significant interpretation on current operations in the development of national, regional and international quality.

Document analysis has been used as a primary source to analyse policy documents and reports on current operations in the development of quality across national, regional and international boundaries generally and across the UK and Egypt particularly. These help address the research questions by giving breadth and depth of the collected data and combination of methods to combine between the naturally occurring data from documents, reports and the broader literature and the generated data from the research interviews. Such data is analysed systematically recognizing that not all material may be made available. Although document analysis can be time consuming, its advantages are that data are relatively inexpensive but can provide a good source of background knowledge and identify issues not noted by other means.

While a case study approach is mainly concerned with understanding phenomenon within its context, document analysis is helpful in clarifying context. Data naturally occurred from available documents have been grouped into four categories: first is the historical background of the context of quality across national, regional and international levels generally and across the UK and Egypt particularly; second is the current operations in the development of quality in the research levels respectively; third is the strengths existed and challenges facing quality across the research levels; and fourth is the required reforms that should take place in quality to complete the global picture of quality worldwide.

- **Case Studies Analysis**

The research builds an evidence base allowing review and assessment how the system under analysis (quality) behaves in order, potentially, to propose an original systems design. Documentary analysis is complemented by detailed interrogation through case studies of the current setting of quality in two countries. Bloor and Wood (2006) argue that case study is a strategy of research that explores a bounded system, aiming to understand social phenomena within a single or small number of naturally occurring settings, with a purpose to provide understanding and description through a detailed example or setting in order to generate or test particular theories. Case studies usually proceed by the researcher providing a description of the settings, searching for themes, aggregating data into themes and comparing themes (Ibid). Creswell (1998) claims that the main strengths of case study analysis include:

producing an embedded analysis for specific aspects of the case; giving a detailed description for the case; analysing themes, patterns and/or issues within and around the case; providing cross interpretation and comparison of the different settings and perspectives related to the case; and analysing the context or setting in which the case presents itself. In this research, case study analysis is the overall nature and characteristics of the systematic design for current operations in the development of quality in British and Egyptian contexts deploying seven-level model of analysis in detail. This is to generate interpretatively and critically an original and significant interpretation on current operations in the development of quality in the UK and Egypt in relation to the seven levels, and the differences between the seven levels of development in the two countries. The case studies adopted are discussed in more detail in chapter four.

- **Comparative Analysis**

Comparative analysis in this research is the characterisation of the settings of quality in the UK and Egypt. It is deployed by the seven levels of analysis elaborated in details in the research main two case studies in order to generate interpretatively and critically an original and significant interpretation specifically on the overall nature and characteristics of the systematic design of quality in the UK and Egypt, and generally on the overall nature and characteristics of national, regional and international contexts included in this research.

The research created a balance of description and analysis of documentary sources that follow in the remaining chapters. According to Hogwood and Gunn (1984); Iivari and Hirschheim (1996); Munger (2000); and Singh *et al.* (2009), this is necessary and appropriate. This is because systems analysis is mainly descriptive. However, the researcher is also reminded to view all the documentary data analytically and this task was undertaken through the model presented in figure 9 in chapter two.

### 3.2.9 Considerations

After conducting the first interview schedule, I started transcribing and reviewing the collected data in light of the research questions. This consideration made me able to reflect

on the work at an early stage and see if methods of data collection were helping address my research questions or needed more adaptation. I transcribed the interviews myself as Silverman (2005) point out as a way of familiarising myself with the data and doing initial data analysis concurrently with my fieldwork.

There was an intention of using NVIVO to analyse the research interviews but, as Richards (1999) shows whatever its merits, it could not be used as interviews in Egypt were conducted in Arabic which NVIVO does not support. Besides, literal translations may not give the same meaning accurately. As a result, I analysed the generated data from the interviews of the research case study in the UK manually to overcome these difficulties and, as matter of consistency, the generated data from the research case study interviews in Egypt was also analysed manually.

Framework analysis was used. It is a recent approach to qualitative analysis which was developed in the context of applied policy research. It shares many features with qualitative analysis, especially thematic analysis. To create consistency with the nature of the research methodology of systems analysis and design, I saw some benefits from using the framework analysis in that it provides systematic and visible stages to the analysis process, so that funders, other researchers and readers can be clear about the stages by which the results have been obtained (Ritchie and Spencer, 1994; and Lacey and Luff, 2007). It should be noted that framework analysis is a data management tool and not a substitute for interpretation.

There are reasons for adopting such approach. Research is often bounded by constraints of time and resources and analysis has to be brought to a close when specific questions have been answered. In such circumstances, framework analysis is suited to asking specific questions with limited timescales, especially with a researcher conducting a PhD research. Another reason is that although framework analysis is mainly inductive, it allows for the inclusion of a priori as well as emergent concepts in coding (Ibid). As mentioned earlier, I had a priori concepts, from existing literature and document analysis (current operations on the development of quality across national, regional and international boundaries), which I wished to use as codes in addition to codes developed from emergent themes.

Framework analysis has key stages which can be undertaken, although it can be used when data collection and analysis occur concurrently. These five key stages are as follows.

The generated data of the tape recorded interviews has been transcribed verbatim. Even, nonverbal cues, such as silence; pause; words such as well and laughter or gestures have been transcribed as they might give an added meaning to the spoken word. Thus, an interview database of full transcribed interviews is available. The transcriptions have been written in a word file with three columns: the first column includes the whole transcription and the second column identifies the main points while the third column clarifies the key messages from participants' answers. After transcribing the data, I have organized it into retrievable sections. Each interview has a given interviewee pseudonym with a file which helped link pseudonyms to the original informants. This file was kept confidential and will be kept in secure and safe place and will not be revealed outside the research purposes. The real names or other identifiable material of the participants have been removed from the transcripts. However, I still keep the real names of the participants and their interviews. The data have been organized in a systematic way and any unit of text can be traced back to its original context. I have listened to tapes; read and re-read the data, made memos and summaries to get familiar with the data before starting formal analysis.

The initial coding framework is developed both from a priori issues (on investigating the need for systematisation of quality) and emerging issues from the familiarisation stage. This thematic framework was developed and refined during subsequent stages through re-coding to develop better defined categories. Some of the themes emerging from the data were also the issues with which I began my research, which suggests my data confirmed their importance and enabled me to explore them further. For example, during the interviews, administrative and academic staff (in the research two case studies of the UK and Egypt) raised other issues and themes, such as the governance of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality, who will operate the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality, the finance of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality, and how the standards will be formed. Having reviewed these emergent themes, I found they all fit within the main themes with which I began my research and, as a result, I have included them within these themes. To create consistency between the

research methodology of systems analysis and design and the research data/information analysis, I have organised and analysed the generated data from the research interviews in the UK and Egypt into a research data analysis seven-theme typology that is consistent with the research seven-level analysis typology. This means that the main themes of analysing the generated data are: (1) the individual level; (2) the programme level; (3) the department/faculty level; (4) the institutional level; (5) the national level; (6) the regional level; and (7) the world level. This show the massive breadth and depth global scale of the research data/information analysis which gives further strength and depth to the research generalizability and implications.

Having identified the generated data from the research fieldwork, the process began of applying that framework to the data, using codes to identify specific pieces of data corresponding to the research data analysis seven-theme typology. I searched the data for material that could be coded under this framework while concurrently searching for emergent concepts. The preliminary codes, used at this stage, were modified later when a need for them arisen but served to begin the process of categorizing and analysing.

This process began by using headings from the research seven-theme analysis typology to create charts of the generated data so that I could read across the data set. These charts could be thematic for the research data analysis seven-theme typology across all respondents or by case for each respondent across the research data analysis seven-theme typology.

After the charting process, the research generated data analysis went further searching for patterns, associations, concepts, and explanations in the generated data, aided by visual displays and plots. This stage aimed at identifying points of consensus and contradiction between the different types of participants. In this final stage of analysis, I started to identify the main findings, which were then compared with the findings from document analysis and cross referenced with findings from the broader literature, with an aim of generating a conclusion on the research first phase of systems analysis whether there is a need to move to the research second phase of systems design, and articulating a theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the structure of the UN for governing the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe.

### 3.2.10 Issues

Designing a qualitative research is not a simple process. I gave further considerations to the requirements of trusting the research generalizability and implications. To do this, I addressed certain issues. Analytical explication of these issues follows.

- **Validity**

Although Cohen *et al*. (2007) argued that it is impossible for a research to be 100 per cent valid (as it is the optimism of perfection), the following precautions have been taken to secure different aspects of the research validity.

Content validity is demonstrated in this research through a careful process of the research piloting. This has increased validity by making sure that the instrument measured what it purported to measure. Construct validity is demonstrated through the research two-fold data typology represented in combining between: first, the naturally occurring data from reports, surveys and the broader academic literature and second, the generated data from the research two case studies interviews in the UK and Egypt, constituting the use of a two-fold data typology for the research data collection to enhance rigour: document analysis and semi-structured interviews. Moreover, the research two-fold data typology is mainly qualitative.

The multi-method approach adopted increased the validity of search for truth of the research and also helped overcome the problem of the research methods. Internal validity is demonstrated through ensuring that the research findings were drawn from the research two-fold data typology and accurately described the phenomena under investigation. Examining the external validity through the writings of Robson (2002); Yin (2003); Cohen *et al*. (2007); and Lacey and Luff (2007) indicate that it is demonstrated in this research through the choice of the research seven analytical typologies.

The research used seven analytical typologies for the first time not only in the field but also across the broader literature. The first typology is the fact of the research three-fold typology

which investigates current operations in the development of quality across national, regional and international boundaries (shown in chapters five, six, seven, eight and nine). The second typology is the fact of the research seven-level analysis typology which starts with: the individual level; the programme level; the department/faculty level; the institutional level; the national level; the regional level; and ends with the world level (shown from section 2.2 to section 2.8 in chapter two and in chapters six and seven). The third typology is the fact of the research data analysis seven-theme typology which starts with the theme of the individual level and end with the theme of the world level (shown in chapters six and seven). The fourth typology is the fact of the research two-fold data typology which combines between the naturally occurring data through reports, surveys and the broader academic literature and the generated data through the interviews of the research two case studies in the UK and Egypt (shown in the research first phase from chapter two to chapter twelve). The fifth typology is the fact of the research two case studies typology of two contrasting contexts which are: the University of Exeter in the UK constituting a developed country with wide similarities to the developed countries in the world, and Mansoura University in Egypt constituting a developing country with wide similarities to the developing countries (shown in chapters six and seven).

An interesting methodological point asserting validity in research is that the bridging stage between the research first phase of systems analysis and the research second phase of systems design is created here. At this stage I could decide whether there is a need to move to the research second phase of systems design, and articulating a theorisation for establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the systematic structure of the UN for governing the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe. My decision is that: yes, there is a need. I took this decision depending on the evidence-based conclusions of the research five analytical typologies of the research first phase (systems analysis). A more interesting point here is the need to know how the transition stage between the research first phase of systems analysis and the research second phase of systems design was created. I can now say how. The research first five analytical typologies (which belong to the research first phase of systems analysis) created the research second phase of systems design. Another more interesting point here is that not only does the research first five analytical typologies of the research first phase of systems analysis created the research second phase of systems

design but also they created the research sixth typology (which belongs to the research second phase of systems design). The research sixth typology is represented in the research generalizability three-fold typology which warrants the breadth and depth global scale of the research implications and generalisations. The research generalizability three-fold typology is represented in: first, representational generalisation which means that the research generalizability and implications apply to the research sampling contexts; second, referential generalisation which means that the research generalizability and implications apply to other referential contexts similar to the research sampling contexts; and third, theoretical generalisation which means that the applicability of the research generalizability and implications is theoretical allowing a possibility for the research implications to be implemented in any context across the globe (see section 3.2.6 and section 3.2.10 of chapter three). After the completion of the research cycle of its two phases (systems analysis and systems design), the research seventh typology was created. The completion of this cycle created the research seventh typology. The research seventh typology is the research encyclopaedia two-fold typology of both breadth and depth global scale, combining analytically between the smallest level of analysis in the world (which is the individual level) and the biggest level of analysis in the world (which is the world level) in one go. This combination creates the validity and reliability of the research sixth typology (represented in the research generalizability three-fold typology) which belongs to the research second phase of systems design. This creation and its bases validate that this research is unique and original.

Particular precautions were taken to minimize threats to validity and avoid possible sources of bias and subjectivity in interviews and data analysis. During the interviews, I made sure the interview schedule did not include any leading questions and avoided imposing my own definitions of situations on participants. During the research data analysis stage, I sought to avoid as Levering (2006) points out the subjective interpretation of the data and made sure that the data analysed are lived interpretations and not interpretations of interpretations. Thus, I sought to avoid subjective interpretation by avoiding selective use of data and using multiple respondent sources and multiple methods of data collection. Careful attention was given to presenting the perceptions of the participants accurately and honestly without exploitation of the generated data.

- **Reliability**

Concerning reliability in research, careful attention was given to achieving consistency of findings generated from the study. I considered as Robson (2002) points out the reliability of my research methods and research practices by thoroughness, care and honesty in carrying out the work. Reliability was demonstrated through the piloting and the early research investigation and enhanced through methodological combinations in two ways: first, the use of multiple methods of data collection (two-fold data typology of naturally occurring data of the reports, surveys and the broader academic literature and generated data of the research case studies interviews in the UK and Egypt); and second, the use of multiple respondent sources (administrative and academic staff). Combination of the research first five typologies was approached by putting more than one quotation to support the same argument and to ensure that I avoided selective use of data. Evidence was also cross-referenced with material in policy documents, reports, surveys and the broader academic literature on investigating current operations in the development of quality across national, regional and international boundaries in the general and across the UK and Egypt in particular, with a view to assess the need for Systematisation of quality and articulating a theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the structure of the UN for managing the international accreditation to HEIs worldwide. Careful attention was given to constructing a reliable research two case studies database and demonstrating a clear chain of evidence (Yin, 2003).

Much attention was given to ensuring transparency and rigour through the detailed analysis of every stage of the research design and methodology including all research decisions, especially the construction of methods of the research data collection and the research data analysis. My position as an insider has also been identified and is thought to enhance the validity and reliability of the research generalizability and implications as it helped build trust between me and the interviewees, allowing them to give their perceptions frankly. The settings of the research two case studies and participants have been described in detail so that the research generalizability and implications can be understood in the research contexts

allowing a possibility to be applied to similar settings where appropriate according to the research sixth typology.

- **Research Ethics**

Conducting qualitative educational research requires considering certain ethical considerations and those considered include: copyright which is protected by the Designs and Patents Act of 1988 covering literary, dramatic, musical, artistic works and computer files and data on the Internet as well as paper documents for seventy years from the death of the last remaining author or from where the first publication of the work after which time it falls into the public domain; freedom of information which is protected by the Freedom of Information Act of 2000, representing a key further piece of legislation requiring the need to gain access to government and institutional records based on application; and data protection which is the subject of the Data Protection Act of 1998 designed especially to protect details of personal data or identification of particular individuals from being published without consent during the lifetime of individual. These considerations were relevant in the two cases of the research. Throughout the study, documents were analysed sensibly in relation to these ethical requirements (McCulloch, 2004).

The application of ethics began at the conception of the research idea and its implications remained even after the research was over. High standards of ethical care have been followed, following the Graduate School of Education Research Ethics Protocol (University of Exeter) and the British Educational Research Association Revised Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research (BERA, 2004). Analysis of the ethical considerations informing the execution of the research case studies in the UK and in Egypt follows.

The field work and its design have been approved by the Graduate School of Education, University of Exeter. Formal University E-mails were sent to the research participants in the UK and Egypt. The emails sent to the selected participants as Lofman *et al*. (2004) and Crow *et al*. (2006) recommended told them about the nature of the study with the interview schedule and explicit information on the research nature and its area attached to give them a

clear idea about the issues under investigation. Those emails also asked for their consent to participate in the study while ensuring confidentiality and anonymity. They were also asked for their permission to tape record and/or take notes during the interviews.

Interviewing each respondent, I started by thanking him/her for being willing to participate in the research fieldwork. Firstly, I introduced myself to the respondents and gave them an oral introduction about the research and the purpose of the interview. This introduction was to give appropriate information to respondents so that they were able to give informed consent to participation. Although Gary (2004) argues that a written statement is better than verbal agreement, I have taken consent verbally. The reason for this is that the participants' experience whether in the UK or in Egypt on current operations in the development of quality in the UK and Egypt respectively did not seem to be personal or sensitive issues. Although there is no concerns to ask the research respondents in the UK to give written informed consent, realised from my own experience in the UK, the research respondents in Egypt may not feel comfortable when being asked to give written informed consent and doing so might have affected their answers, realised from my own experience with the Egyptian social culture.

The generated data have been treated with utmost confidentiality and honesty. Once the generated data were collected, the names of the research participants were removed from all data collection forms and transcripts and replaced by assigning pseudonyms. Only the researcher has had access to the data as Denscombe (2002) and Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) recommended. Interviewees were assured that they would remain anonymous, no record of the interviews would be kept with their names, and the data would not be used for any other purpose. According to what Craig and Charles (2005) point out, interviewees were informed they had the right not to answer any question they did not wish to answer and had the right to withdraw at any time and request that data collected not be used for any purposes other than the purposes of this research. Finally, participants were informed that a report of the main research conclusions would be sent to whoever interested.

- **Further Considerations**

In qualitative research, Elliot (2005) points out that data analysis process in a study such as that undertaken here demands the researcher to be aware of the following further considerations.

1. It is important to notice that all human understanding is achieved by considering the interdependent meaning of parts and the whole.
2. It is necessary to consider the importance of contextualisation in each sub-system in terms of educational, cultural, socio-economic, political, environmental and historical backgrounds.
3. Sensitivity is required to the potential for possible contradictions between theoretical preconceptions guiding the research design and actual policies and practices that may be uncovered.
4. It is important to examine quality of data available for analysis by assessing its validity in terms of authenticity (the originality of data), credibility (the accuracy of data), representativeness (the type and kind of data) and meaning (the clear intention).

Later in chapter four and specifically in sections 4.4, 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, and 4.8 and across its subsections, there is an accurate explication of the theoretical application of systems analysis and design methodology in the present study, how it operates within this research and how it can be imported from the classic context such as Engineering, computer and IT to social and institutional systems such as the field of this research. This application attempts a rigorous analysis and to generate original and significant interpretation of the design methodology.

Analysis in this context is the exact identification of how to reach the attainment of operating the targeted system from the current systems. This requires clarifying the vision, mission and aims of the targeted system and how they are to be operated successfully. An accurate explication of the targeted system is located in chapter six, where the thesis turns its pages to systems design.

## 3.3 Summary of Chapter Three

The research design fits the nature of the research and fits its breadth and depth global scale. Using the research two case studies in the UK and Egypt has provided detailed knowledge of the selected institutions compared with more cross investigation of several universities. The selected methods of data/information collection and data/information analysis fit the research design and methodology. Document analysis helped me examine the historical context, policies and strategies, strengths and weaknesses, and reforms taking place on current operations on the development of quality across national, regional and international boundaries generally and across the UK and Egypt particularly. Interviews with administrative and academic staff from the UK and Egypt respectively about their perspectives and experiences on the research topic helped to understand how quality in the UK and Egypt operate, with generating conclusions on the need to move from the research first phase of systems analysis to the research second phase of systems design, and articulating a theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the structure of the UN for managing the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe. The generated data from the research two-case studies typology has been analysed, with creating a combination between the naturally occurring data through the reports, surveys and the broader academic literature and the generated data from the research two case studies interviews in the UK and Egypt to address the research questions.

# Chapter Four

# Methodology

## 4.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out the research methodology. The chapter presents theorisation and application of using systems analysis and design methodology in the thesis. It points out the choices systems analysis and design methodology serve so that the research can chose the best method to bring the research into reality. An explicit analysis follows.

## 4.2 Research Methodology

A methodology is an ordered set of tasks, which if undertaken, achieves a specific aim. For instance while deciding on a government investments, a methodology guides the decision-maker on the aspects of the investment that are necessary and how these can be integrated into the system. Also, the methodology provides the means for assessing the likelihood of success in order to allow an informed decision to be made as to whether the required investment can be justified. The review of previous works (Gaafar and Bedworth, 1993 and Doumeingts, 1995) shows various methodologies that have been developed and used for the modelling of systems, advanced manufacturing systems and computer integrated manufacturing systems. Though none of systems methodologies have been used in the context of quality, a number of them share some features.

The main intellectual frame underpinning the methodological stance of this research is documentary systems analysis and design, with analysis (chapters 2 - 12) and design (chapters 13-14) comprising sequential stages. The research first phase of systems analysis utilises a wide range of complementary perspectives on quality designed to investigate current operations in the development of quality across national, regional and international levels in general, and across the UK and Egypt in particular. The research second phase of systems design proposes refinements to the current system identified in phase one.

The research used systems analysis and design methodology because I am dealing with systems of quality. I decided to look at quality as a system and not only as a vision or enhancing mechanism. This is because the systematic vision is always comprehensive, persuasive and accurate. Although using this methodology is new in the field and that is why it is complex, I decided to take this journey for future applications that can be beneficial to researchers and academics. This methodology looks first at the whole and then to the part, and after that returns back to the whole. Again as I indicated previously in chapter one if we look intensively to everything in life, we will find it a system that works in the wider system of the world. I want to assert the systematic vision in our life. Systems of quality are partial systems operating within agencies and/or institutions that are also partial systems of our world.

## 4.3 Systems

A system is defined as a collection of components which are interrelated in an organised way and work together towards the accomplishment of certain logical and purposeful end (Wu, 1996). The following are the salient features of a system:

1. It constitutes of an assembly of components including the input, processes, output, feedback, controls and constraints;
2. It has a logical relationship between the components;
3. It has a well-defined objective; and
4. It provides both a holistic and hierarchical view of the model. A system can itself be part of a wider system and can be broken down into a number of subsystems.

Although in 1971 Jenkins and Youle highlighted that a piecemeal approach to system development was no longer acceptable in the light of increasing complexity, and increasing harsh consequences of poor decision making (Jenkins and Youle, 1971). Perhaps what was required was a discipline holistic approach to the development of systems, which can be defined as an organised and interrelated set of components that fulfil a purpose. Other definitions include those by Blanchard and Fabrycky (1990); Reilly (1993); Singh (1996);

and Pahl and Beitz (1996) and though these definitions differ, they are mainly on the grounds of perspective. There is generally a greater consensus on the properties exhibited by a system. A system has an overall objective or function. This function must be explicitly defined and understood in order that system elements provide the desired output for a given set of inputs.

A system is a hierarchy of independent elements that perform together as a functional unit. These compound elements are referred to as subsystems. A system is defined by its limits or boundary. Everything outside the boundary is considered to be the environment. A system interacts with its environment through inputs, processes and outputs. Systems are composed of: components that are operating parts of the system consisting of input, process, output, attributes and relationships. A system is more than the sum of its components as the set of components comprising the system exhibits some characteristics that cannot be exhibited by any of its subsets.

This indicates that the properties and behaviour of each component of the system has an effect on the properties and behaviour of the system as a whole, and is influenced by at least one other component in the set. Thus any component cannot be designed in isolation from the overall system. It is also clear that the overall system is bigger than the entire collection of its parts (subsystems). This is because the overall system combines the subsystems plus the interaction between these subsystems. This additional component (interaction) will be absent if the subsystems are separated from each other.

### 4.3.1 Systems Engineering and Systems Thinking

Systems thinking stemmed from the finding that in order to understand complex biological phenomena the traditional reductionism of natural science was not the best approach. What was proposed was a systems approach that was systemic, or concerned with the whole (Checkland, 1981 and 1983). The systems methodology in engineering often does not reflect this view and leads to systems engineering which is based on reductionism rather than systematic thinking (Kidd, 1994).

Checkland (1981) introduces the terms ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ systems where a hard systems method is one that is designed to achieve given objectives. Hard systems have needs that can be clearly defined, and that the engineering challenge is to design and select the best among possible alternative systems. Soft systems methods are applied to situations where objectives cannot be taken as a given (King, 1988 and Wilson, 1990). The distinction is highlighted by Barnaby (1981), where the manufacturing system is seen in terms of hardware, processes, controls, inputs and outputs; and where the ‘soft’ social processes such as human interaction are outside the system.

Systems engineering is an interdisciplinary approach to drive, evolve and verify a life cycle balanced system solution that satisfies customer expectations and meets public acceptability. So it involves the application of efforts to (Blanchard and Fabrycky, 1990):

- Transform an operational need into a description of system performance parameters and a preferred system configuration through the use of an iterative process of functional analysis, synthesis, optimisation, definition, design, test and evaluation;
- Incorporate related technical parameters and assure compatibility of all physical, functional and program interfaces in a manner that optimises the total system definition and design; and
- Integrate performance, reliability, maintainability, supportability and other specialities into the overall engineering effort.

Jenkins and Youle (1971) and Yourdon and Constantine (1979) point out that processes of systems engineering consist of four major stages:

Systems analysis: This stage includes formulation of the project, definitions and objectives for the system and information and data collection.

Systems design: This stage includes forecasting of the system environment, modelling and simulation, optimisation and selection.

Systems implementation: This stage involves approval of the systems concept, construction and checking.

Systems operation: This stage includes use, appraisal and improved operation of the system.

This approach has been adopted by computer system and software engineers who have utilised this systems process as a structured and requirements driven approach to development. The appealing aspect of this approach is the ability to take an inherently ambiguous and complex set of requirements and apply a structured process to achieve an efficient solution. The process is also repeatable, independent allowing implementations to be traced to customer requirements and also consider the impact beyond implementation. The increasing complexity of physical and human activity systems in general has seen the application of systems engineering outside of the computer systems arena. Martin (1997) points out that systems engineering can be applied equally well to products especially when they are complex enough that conventional development techniques are insufficient for the project's intricacies and uncertainties.

- **Systems Engineering**

Systems engineering is defined as the art of designing and optimising complex systems, starting with an expressed need and ending up with a complete set of specifications for all the system elements (Daenzer and Huber 1985). Bahill and Dean (1999) consider systems engineering as an overall interdisciplinary process that ensures that the customer's needs are satisfied throughout a system's entire life cycle. They defined a process comprised of the following seven tasks.

1. State the problem: Stating the problem is the most important systems engineering task. It entails identifying customers, understanding customer needs, establishing the need for change, discovering requirements and defining system functions.
2. Investigate alternatives: Alternatives are investigated and evaluated based on performance, cost and risk.
3. Model the system: Running models clarifies requirements, reveals bottlenecks and fragmented activities, reduces cost and exposes duplication of effort.
4. Integrate: Integration means designing interfaces and bringing system elements together so they work as a whole. This requires extensive communication and coordination.
5. Launch the system: Launching the system means running the system and producing outputs. This makes the system do what it was intended to do.

6. Assess performance: Performance is assessed using figures of merit, technical performance measures and metrics, where measurement is the key. If you cannot measure it, you cannot control it. If you cannot control it, you cannot improve it.
7. Re-evaluation: Re-evaluation should be a continual and iterative process with many parallel loops.

Stevens *et al*. (1998) argue that the environment of one system may consist of a number of external systems such as cooperating or competing systems with which a product interacts and has to survive. This is acceptable because making an end product needs development support systems and perhaps a system to install the product. Therefore, Martin (1997) points out that system engineering is the expanding of research into multi-systems, an interdisciplinary, comprehensive approach to solving complex system problems and satisfying stakeholder requirements. He added that where interdisciplinary means that systems engineering work traverses across more than one single system; complex systems normally require individuals from a variety of engineering and non-engineering specialties and functional areas contributing skills and knowledge in an integrated manner to realise an effective and efficient system.

Stevens *et al*. (1998) stated that the development of systems engineering is about creating effective solutions to problems and managing the technical complexity of resulting developments. From the outset, it is a creative activity centred on defining system requirements, and then concepts and details embedded into the product to be built. Then the emphasis switches again, to integration and verification, before delivering the system to the customer. According to Martin (1997), defining systems engineering basically consists of three elements:
Management: This first element is about plans. Plans organize, control and direct the technical development of a system or its products.
Requirements and architecture definition: This is the second element which defines the technical requirements based on the stakeholder requirements. It defines also a structure (or architecture) for the system components, and allocates these requirements to the components of this architecture.

System integration and verification: This third and final element integrates components of systems at each level of the architecture and verifies that the requirements of those components are met.

- **Systems Thinking**

O'Connor (1997) defines systems thinking as a unique approach to problem solving, which views certain problems as parts of an overall system, rather than focusing on individual outcomes and contributing to further development of the undesired element or problem. Capra (1996) points out that systems thinking is the only way to fully understand why a problem or element occurs and persists; and to understand the part in relation to the whole. This outlook to systems thinking was argued by Kornwach and Jacoby (1996) that systems naturally exist throughout the whole world; wherever we have complex behaviour emerging from interactions among things that make networks. Systems thinking have become an organisational buzz word in the last decade since Peter Senge (1990) first wrote The Fifth Discipline. Systems and the application of systems thinking has been grouped into three categories based on the techniques used, which are:

Hard systems: Involving simulations, often using computers and the techniques of operations research. This category is useful for problems that can justifiably be quantified.

Soft systems: For systems that cannot easily be quantified, especially those involving people holding multiple and conflicting frames of reference. Soft systems are a field that utilizes foundation methodological work developed by Checkland (1981) and Wilson (1990).

Evolutionary systems: Developed by Banathy (1996), a methodology that is applicable to the design of complex social systems. This technique integrates critical systems inquiry with soft systems methodologies.

Von (1976) and Laszlo (1996) argue that systems thinking imply the thinking of systems as a whole rather than as simply an assembly of distributed and separate components. This is what Axlerod (1997) interpreted. He explained that systems thinking are not only to collect components, but also to put them into a rule-set environment. It extends beyond one sole system boundary to consider outside factors influencing the system. More all-sided, it considers the operation of the system from its original inception, through its whole life cycle

to its eventual disposal. Thus it could cover all systems of significant size including people, and people working with technology so as to form socio-technical systems.

## 4.4 Theoretical Application: Systems Analysis, Systems Design and the Concept of the Socio-technical System

The generation of the idea of the current research and the theorisation of the methodology derives in part from my knowledge base. However, I found that it is possible to take classic systems and design methodology from non-social systems such as engineering, computer and IT and apply them in social sciences or institutional systems such as technological education after undertaking certain adaptations and modifications in terms of methodology and design.

Systems analysis and design is a modern scientific concept first developed in the 1940s, where it began to be applied in many fields of research and knowledge (Davis, 1983). It is a logical, systemised and general process (combining a set of sub-processes) for identifying and solving problems, dividing systems into sub-systems until reaching the first components of their structure, with a view to consider the relation between these components and the system they operate within. Generally, implementing systems analysis anticipates further development aimed at moving from the current system to an enhanced one. Creating this development requires proceeding from systems analysis to systems design. Analysing the current system, designing a new system, operating it and assessing it in operation are the main stages of implementing systems analysis methodology. Gore (1983) and Edwards (1984) identify some stages during conducting systems analysis. Some of these stages follow.

1. Identifying the already established system and its inputs, processes and outputs and indicating its abilities, strengths and weaknesses, opportunities and challenges.
2. Designing a new or modified system for implementation.
3. Operating the new or modified system in the actual context.
4. Evaluating which aims were achieved and which were not and the reasons of failure so as to provide beneficiaries with evidence and advice as to whether the old system should be continued, modified or changed.

A system is collection of subsystems that are interrelated and interdependent, working together to accomplish predetermined goals and objectives (Kendall and Kendall, 2002). Systems analysis is the process of gathering information about a current system, which may or may not be computerised, identifying its strengths and problems and analysing it so as to assess the possibility of producing a refined system (Whitten *et al* 1989). Its main strength is in its potential to understand the requirements for a refined system and develop a system concept that addresses this or decides that a new system is not needed. Dennis *et al*. (2002) explain this by following a basic process of analysis divided into three steps: understanding the system; identifying improvements; and developing design for the To-Be system. It is an appropriate methodology for this research in that it examines current systems and practices on quality, indicating how they behave and offering the potential to design a system aimed at articulating a theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality potentially located within the structure of the UN.

Existing national and regional systems of quality consist of social dimensions represented in people and technical dimensions represented in techniques and tools. This indicates that they are socio-technical systems. According to sociotechnical systems' theory, Liu *et al*. (2006) point out that every organization is made up of people (the social system) using tools, techniques, and knowledge (the technical system) to produce goods or services valued by customers (part of the organization's external environment). The extent to which the social and technical systems fit one another and fit the demands of the external environment determines the extent of an organization's effectiveness. This theory claims that organizational objectives are best met by the joint optimization of the technical and the social aspects of an organization.

Yorke (1999) and Teferra and Altbachl (2004) argue that the challenges facing higher education can be summarised as ensuring that their organizational processes are efficient and that they are served by the latest developments in technology. However, I argue that this is only existed in the developed countries. But with the case of Egypt (as a developing country) the higher education system suffers as Said (2001) points out from problems affecting negatively its quality and the mission it peruse. But at any way the assessment of the extent to which these challenges are being met requires a methodology that can inquire into the

theoretical coherence and practical value of systems ideas and different systems approaches. In this way systems analysis and design methodology can assist in solving problems of higher education. Employing this vision needs an insight into generic systems analysis and design procedures to consider the most significant figures of this approach for assisting HEIs. In turn, this demands clarifying many issues about systems.

Organisations and researchers (Davidz and Nightingale, 2008) who become interested in systems thinking have concluded that it is a powerful method for radically transforming the way in which organisations work. However, systems thinking can often seem controversial and uncomfortable as it challenges many of the core paradigms of management, as it is different from normal thinking. The following table summarises this comparison.

Table 1: Normal Thinking V Systems Thinking

| **Normal thinking** | **Comparison** | **Systems Thinking** |
|---|---|---|
| Functional specialization | Perspective | Outside-in |
| Separated from work | Design | Demand, value and flow |
| Budget, targets, standards, activity and productivity | Decision-making | Integrated with work |
| Extrinsic | Measurement | Designed against purpose and demonstrate variation |
| Manage budgets and the people | Motivation | Intrinsic |
| Contractual | Management ethic | Act on the system |
| Contractual | Attitude to customers | What matters? |
| Change by project/initiative | Attitude to suppliers | Partnering and co-operation |
| Static | Approach to change | Adaptive and integral |

Adapted from Davidz and Nightingale, 2008

Systems theory and the theory of knowledge and information must ultimately be related in a fundamental way. Both are concerned with the form and organization. And it is little wonder that communications theory has held a singular fascination for systems theorists. The

derivation of a scalar measure of organization is possible only in the very special case with which systems theory is concerned. The knowledge content of a system is closely bound up with system's organization and its structure.

Theorists (Cabrera *et al*., 2008) point to two types of organizations: causal systems and goal-directed systems. A causal system is an instance of what it might be called a mechanical structure. The movements of the parts are causally related to one another within the dictates of a fixed structure. The example of this is mechanical clockwork. Each gear moves by virtue of the force impressed on it by a previous gear; and each carries out its function within the pattern ordained by the designer. Once cut loose from its creator, the mechanical system cannot increase its level of organization. So any change in structure must lower the level of system organization. The global-directed system manages itself. An example of this is the human being, where he/she has the aim motivating his/her actions and behaviours.

This explanation let me argue that information and control are closely related concepts in systems theory. In a strictly causal system, the only way to change behaviour is by reprogramming the system. Often, this can be accomplished by adjusting various control variables to modify the system's structure much as we manipulate the steering wheel and foot pedals to alter the behaviour of an automobile. This is called open-loop control, in that the controlling information comes entirely from outside the boundaries of the system.

From the other hand Bosch *et al*., (2007) point out that goal-directed systems work somewhat differently. These systems also have a fixed structure, but with certain manipulated variables that can be altered by information generated within the system itself. The system possesses a goal and it is able to compare its situation with that goal and make appropriate adjustments toward it. However, any change in the system's state might be dangerous, and prolonged changes might represent in some cases worrisome imbalances that threaten to affect the system negatively. An example of the goal-directed systems is the human being. This leads to the need for knowing systems analysis and design methodology in more details.

There many considerations led me to adopt systems analysis and design methodology in my Doctorate. The national and regional systems of quality consist of social dimensions

represented in people and technical dimensions represented in techniques and tools. This indicates that they are socio-technical systems.

Harteloh (2003), Carayon (2006) and Liu *et al*. (2006) indicate that socio-technical systems can be assessed in three ways have three phases to work. These are represented in the design, implementation and operation. During a design phase, decisions are made regarding the physical, cognitive and psychosocial characteristics of the socio-technical system. In the phase of implementation, issues of participation, feedback, training and learning, project management, organizational support and management commitment are important to facilitate and foster the implementation of the change. The operation phase occurs after the redesigned socio-technical system has been implemented. At this stage, the issues of sustainability of the change and continuous improvement become important particularly the implementation of quality improvement.

Theorists of socio-technical system preach the affinity of the social and the technical within organizations, dividing them into social and technical subsystems. However, there is a need to anticipate the possibilities of new technologies within the social system, as the social subsystem of a modern socio-technical system does not consist of mere human beings but combines people and the technological artefacts they use. It is worth mentioning also that technologies have often been applied specifically to limit functional redundancy of the socio-technical systems leading to reduced communication, learning, and utilization of human talent. (Kasvi *et al*., 2000 and Woo and Vicente 2003)

Brandt *et al*. (1999); Harris and Harris (2004); Naikar (2006); and Reiman and Oedewald (2007) point out that many tasks in socio-technical systems are discretionary and that workers have a great variety of options with respect to what to do and when and how, as the main role of workers is to deal with those unanticipated events that pose the greatest threat to system performance and safety. Moreover, the difficulties of managing socio-technical systems have received a lot of attention in connection with various organizational accidents. Socio-technical systems are socially constructed and dynamic cultures. In order to be able to assess complex socio-technical systems, an understanding of the organizational core task is required. They thus originate from a traditional mechanistic paradigm of organization

science. This emphasizes the rationality and instrumentality of organizations. Organizations are considered as mechanistic. Thus socio-technical systems are socially constructed and dynamic cultures. Organizations are thus socially constructed and constantly in process. Organizational reality is an ongoing accomplishment, not a stable outcome.

The review of the relevant literature (through the sources cited) indicates that there operations, types, relations and enhancements for systems analysis and design. These are categorizing the models of systems analysis in natural sciences with a view to adapt these to the educational research. Although these models are discussed in the following lines, these will be considered in chapter six in the light of the research findings from chapter three to five along with the theorisation of systems design.

## 4.5 Theoretical Application of Operations in Systems Analysis and Design

Lee (1984) identifies three dimensions characterising the methodology of systems analysis: inputs, processes and outputs. The following pages discuss these three operations, how they are implemented within this research, and how I can apply the systems analysis and design from its originated context of engineering, computer and IT to the field of this research.

- **Inputs**

Inputs are all of the variables which affect system operation. Iivari and Hirschheim (1996) and Singh *et al*. (2009) identify three types of these variables: essential inputs with a central role in operating the system and including all the necessary components for continuing the operation of the system in performing its functions; substitutive inputs which are new components to the system affecting its operation; and environmental inputs which include components which are not systems inputs but have external effects on the system, and which may operate as supporters or as barriers according to the nature of relation between the system and the external environment.

Inputs in this research include: essential inputs such as laws, bylaws, aims, operations of quality, agencies of quality and inter-governmental and non-intergovernmental organisations, which have a central role in operating quality and including all the necessary components for continuing its operations and performing its functions; substitutive inputs which include the enhancements of legislations and operations imposed upon and affecting systems of higher education, operations of quality, agencies of quality, inter-governmental and non-intergovernmental organisations, which are new components to quality and affect its operations; and environmental inputs which include the relation between higher education systems, operations of quality, agencies of quality, inter-governmental and non-intergovernmental organisations, and the relation between them and the local and global environment, which include components which are not systems inputs but have external effects on the system, and which may operate as supporters or as barriers according to the nature of relation between quality and the external environment. The research presented aims to analyse the different factors affecting quality generally and within the British and Egyptian contexts particularly.

- **Processes**

Tatsiopoulos (1990) points out that processes are all the components which create the interaction between the sub-systems of the whole system generally, and operate the interaction between the sub-systems and the elements of each sub-system particularly, and which create interaction between the system and the local and global environment.

Processes in this research include all the components which lead to the interaction between operations of quality, agencies of quality, inter-governmental and non-intergovernmental organisations, interaction between them as separated sub-systems, and interaction between these and the local and global environment. The research presented aims to analyse within seven levels of analysis (see chapters two, six and seven) on different components which create the interaction between the different operations of quality across national, regional and international levels. This is indicated in details in the research case studies in Egypt and the UK in chapter four.

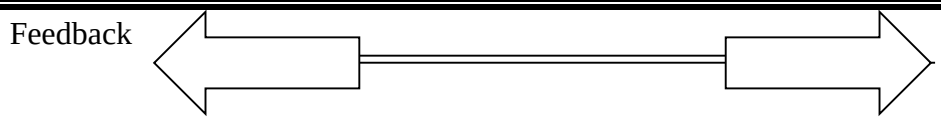
- **Outputs**

In systems analysis, Freund and Sundmacher (2008) point out that outputs are the general return and production of the system and its results. Outputs are connected tightly with the aims of the system as reference points, denoting to what extent the system succeeded in achieving its targeted aims, and outlining the gap between the aims of the system and its achievements. There are three types of outputs: unreturned outputs which do not return to the system once again after producing their effects but become essential components of the local and global environment, and which may be used in evaluating the system when required; returned outputs which return to the system and become parts of its inputs used in enhancing its operation and self-evaluation; and mixed outputs which some of them return back to the system while some of them do not return.

Outputs in this research include: unreturned outputs such as stakeholders who leave their institutions and become inputs of the local and global environment, the achieved aims of operations of quality, agencies of quality, and inter-governmental and non-intergovernmental organisations; returned outputs which include the aims which were not achieved, benefits of the outputs used in evaluating and enhancing the system, and fields of failure in operations of quality, agencies of quality, and inter-governmental and non-intergovernmental organisations; and mixed outputs such as stakeholders who may return to work in their institutions from which they were graduated, and who may interrupt their work in these institutions and return to the external environment. The following table depicts the three dimensions characterising the methodology and how they operate in terms of the research methodology and design.

Table 2: Operation of Research Methodology

| **Inputs** | **N** | **Processes** | **Outputs** | **N** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Essential Inputs | 1 | | Unreturned Outputs | 1 |
| Laws and aims of operations of systems of quality, agencies of quality, inter-governmental and non-intergovernmental organisations | | The components creating the interaction between the systems and sub-systems | The results and production of the systems which do not return to the system again after producing effects which become essential components of the external environment, and which may be used in evaluating and enhancing the systems when required | |
| Substituted Inputs | 2 | | Returned Outputs | 2 |
| Resources and facilities of operations of quality, agencies of quality, inter-governmental and non-intergovernmental organisations | | | The results and production of systems which return to the system and become parts of its inputs used in evaluation and enhancement. | |
| Environmental Inputs | 3 | | Mixed Outputs | 3 |
| The relations between operations of quality, agencies of quality, inter-governmental and non-intergovernmental organisations and local and global environment | | | The outcomes resulting from relations between systems themselves, and those that are produced by relations between the systems and the local and global environment. | |



## 4.6 Theoretical Application of Types of Classification in Systems Analysis and Design

Systems are classified according to the bases upon which the classification rests. There are many types of classifications. According to Aktas (1987), some of these types are as follows.

- Environment-based classification which includes open systems, closed system and semi closed system.
- Origin-based classification which includes natural systems and artificial systems.
- Nature-based classification which includes concrete systems and virtual systems.
- Complexity-based classification which includes simple systems and complex systems.
- Results-based classification which includes systems of expected results and systems of unexpected results.
- Aims-based classification which includes aimed systems and non-aimed systems. The following table depicts the main types of systems.

Table 3: Types of Systems

| No | Criterion | Classification |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Environment | Open System<br>Close System<br>Relatively Close System |
| 2 | Origin | Natural System<br>Man-made System |
| 3 | Nature | Physical System<br>Conceptual System |
| 4 | Complexity | Simple System<br>Complex System |
| 5 | Result | Predictable System<br>Unpredictable System |
| 6 | Aim | Purposive System<br>Non-purposive System |

In the systems analysis phase of the present research, operations of quality, agencies of quality, inter-governmental and non-intergovernmental organisations can be classified as semi-closed systems according to their relations with the local and global environment, artificial systems according to their origin, concreted and virtualised systems according to their nature, simple and complex systems according to their complexity, systems of expected and unexpected results according to their aims.

## 4.7 Theoretical Application of Subsystems Relations in Systems Analysis and Design

FitzGerald (1981) points out that systems analysis methodology is connected tightly to factor analysis which asserts that a system is a whole bigger than the entire collection of its parts.

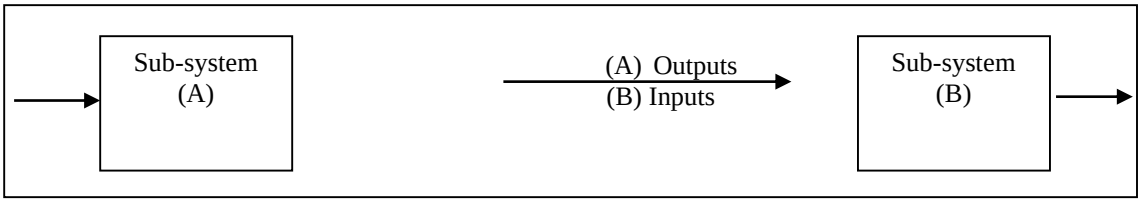
This methodology requires analysis of the overall system into sub-systems and analysis of these sub-systems into smaller sub-systems and so on until the process of analysis reaches the smallest system (black box) that cannot be divided into smaller sub-systems.

In the research presented, the current national, regional and international operations of quality represent an enhancing method (and viewed as a system by the research) followed worldwide in higher education development. Analysing the current operations in the development of quality requires conducting an investigation on how these operations work on the current time, with a view to assess the need for establishing an international system for operating 'systematic' understanding of quality. The analysis followed in this research addresses these operations across clear divisions cover national, regional and international borders. The analysis of the systems and its sub-systems and the smallest systems is clear through the research investigation in the case studies of Egypt and the UK, where the analysis starts from the smallest level of analysis in the world represented in the individual level and ends with the largest level of analysis in the world represented in the world level (see chapters two, six and seven). In all processes of analysis followed in this research, the investigation always assesses in every process the need for systematisation of quality. This is clear in the research first phase of systems analysis (chapters 2 - 12). In the research second phase (chapters 13 - 14), the investigation turns to systems design via articulating a theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality to operate 'systematic' understanding of quality across the globe.

### 4.7.1 Consequential Relations

Consequential relations are found when the outputs of certain sub-system(s) are the same as inputs of other sub-system(s) within the overall system (Borum, 1980). The following figure depicts the consequential relations.

Figure 1: Consequential Relations



This figure shows that the consequential relations within this research are the outputs of the buildings and infrastructure of operations of quality, agencies of quality, inter-governmental and non-intergovernmental organisations, where they are inputs of laboratories, libraries and facilities within these systems. Discussing this type of relations is clear in this research particularly in the analysis of the case studies. The analysis of the programme level, department/faculty level and institutional level in the case studies in the UK and Egypt demonstrates how well this type of relations is addressed in this investigation.

### 4.7.2 Aligning Relations

Aligning relations are found when the inputs of certain sub-systems within the overall system are the same (Johnson *et al*., 1964). The following figure depicts the aligning relations.

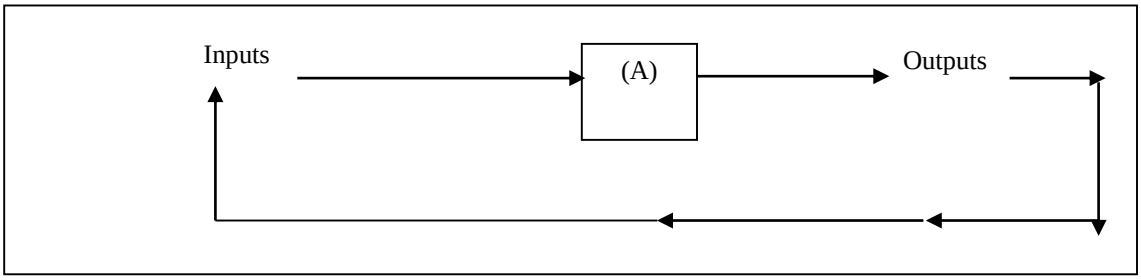
Figure 2: Aligning Relations


This figure illustrates that the aligning relations within this research are the human resources within the operations of quality, agencies of quality, and inter-governmental and non-intergovernmental organisations, where equipments and facilities are the same inputs of these human resources. Discussing this type of relations is clear in this research particularly in the analysis of the case studies. The analysis of the individual level in the case studies in the UK and Egypt demonstrates how well this type of relations is addressed in this investigation.

### 4.7.3 Returning Relations

Returning relations are found when the outputs of certain sub-system(s) are the same as its inputs (Necco *et al*., 1987). The following figure depicts the returning relations.

Figure 3: Returning Relations




This figure shows that returning relations within this research are the aims of operations of quality, agencies of quality, and inter-governmental and non-intergovernmental organisations, where the aims which were not achieved return back again to these systems in order to be achieved. Discussing this type of relations is clear in this research particularly in the analysis of the case studies. The analysis of the case studies in the UK and Egypt demonstrates how well this type of relations is addressed in this investigation.

## 4.8 Theoretical application of enhancement in systems analysis and design

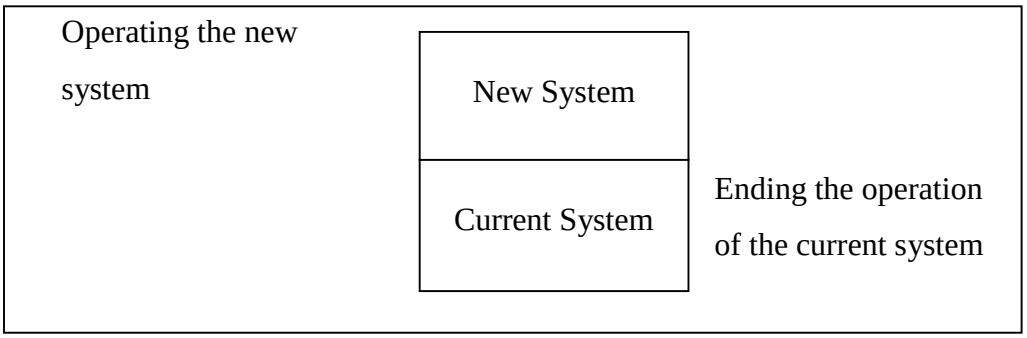
Cutts (1991) points out that systems analysis include a group of alternatives for enhancing systems and transferring from the current system to the targeted system. It is worth mentioning that the presentation of the different alternatives for enhancing systems is for clarification on how enhancing systems and transferring from the current system to the targeted system can be applied in educational research generally and within this investigation particularly. Currently, there are two systemised levels of quality operated via national and regional boundaries. The targeted enhancement on the current systemised levels of quality, and which the investigation tries to contribute is to create the missing international level. It is worth noting that creating the missing international level is not to be an alternative of the systemised national and regional levels. The targeted level is to work side by side with the national and regional levels. Any higher education institution can obtain the national accreditation from its national agency for quality. But for obtaining the international

accreditation, this institution has to apply for a proposed United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for obtaining the international accreditation. This kind of enhancement is to create the international accreditation for adding the international trust and reputation to graduates and their qualifications across the globe. It is argued that enhance creating this missing international level can be achieved via establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for operating 'systematic' understanding of quality. To attain this, the research first phase analyses current operations in the development of national, regional and international quality. Within its analysis, the investigation assesses the need for systematisation of quality. If the research proved that there is a need for systematisation of quality, the investigation will transfer to the research second phase of systems design aimed at articulating a theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the structure of the UN for providing the international accreditation to HEIs in the world. For more indication on how these alternatives can be applied in educational research in general and within this investigation in particular, illustration of the different alternatives of enhancement follows.

### 4.8.1 Direct Enhancement

The method of direct enhancement depends on stopping the operation of the current system and substituting the operation with a full new system as an alternative of the previous system (Douglas, 1983). The following figure depicts the direct enhancement.

Figure 4: Method of Direct Enhancement

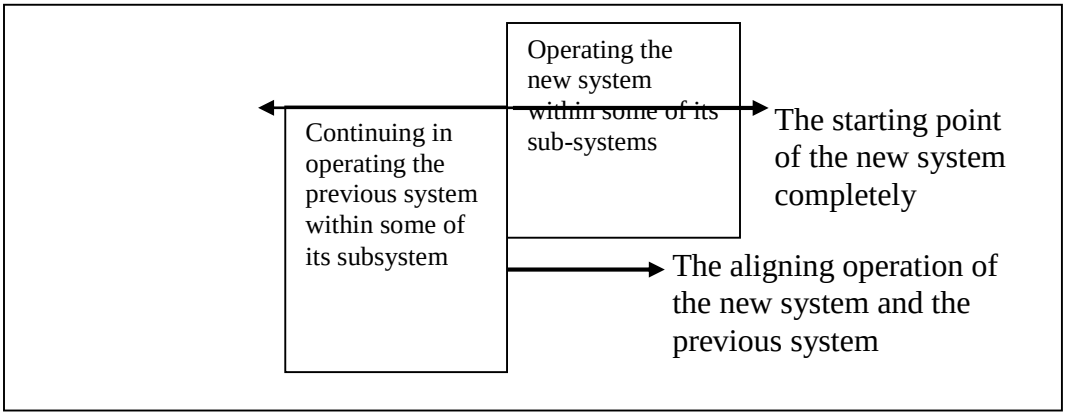


For applying this alternative in educational research, this figure shows that the main strengths of the direct enhancement are that: it reduces the time required for transferring from the current system to the targeted system; it is an appropriate mechanism particularly in the applications of simple systems; and it is an adequate mechanism in systems where it is important to tackle the delay resulting from the transformation from a current system to a required system. However, its main weaknesses are that: it requires high financial costs, resources and abilities that certain organisations may be not able to provide; the case of its failure causes a complete breakdown and such a result is not desired by most organisations; any problem arises while operating the new system may lead to mass interruption; the fact that it requires training for staff to know how they can deal with the new system, so requiring time and costs. For applying this alternative within this research, the enhancement the research seeks is not to stop operating the current national and regional systems of quality, but articulate a theorisation for creating additional global system of 'systematic' understanding of quality as an international level.

### 4.8.2 Aligning Enhancement

In the method of aligning enhancement, O'Keefe (1996) indicates that the operation of the current system is to continue to work in alignment with operating the new system until assurance is gained from the success of the new system and the possibility of operating without the previous system is realised. The following figure depicts the aligning enhancement.

Figure 5: Method of Aligning Enhancement



For applying this alternative in educational research generally, the figure shows that the main strengths of this mechanism is that: it allows conducting comparisons between the old and the new system indicating similarities, differences, weaknesses, strengths, opportunities and challenges, stating the main reason in each case and identifying the required corrections; and that it is appropriate mechanism particularly in organisations which can accept interruption of the operations within some of its sub-systems. However, its main weaknesses include that: it requires high cost and efforts as, according to this mechanism, the old and new systems are to be operated together and that this may be not affordable for certain organisations; it may require a long period of maintenance and demonstrated adequacy as it necessary requires to wait until examination of the results of comparisons are got to decide which system is to be adopted; and that the results of comparisons between the old and the new system may not lead to the required information for decision-taking. For applying this alternative within this research, the enhancement the research seeks is not to stop operating the current national and regional systems of quality after making sure that the operation of 'systematic' understanding of quality as a new international level is successful. All systems of the current and new ones are to continue to operate together with differences in their aims, focus and interest.

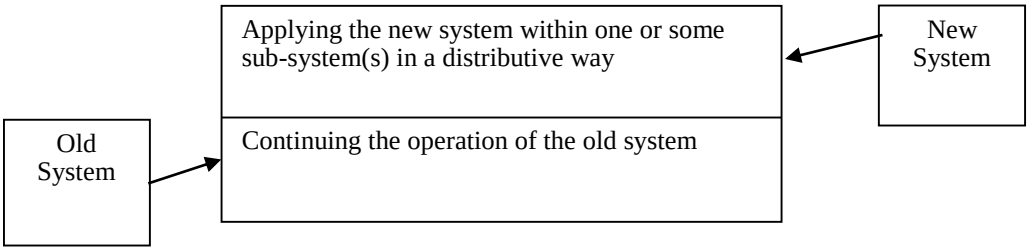
### 4.8.3 Phased Enhancement

Edwards (1984) points out that the method of phased enhancement combines the method of direct enhancement and the method of aligning enhancement. Operate applying this method in educational research generally requires try substituting the new system with the old one phase by phase until the full substitution completed fully. The full substitution requires stopping operate the old system. However, the type of enhancement the research targets is neither to operate the new international system of 'systematic' understanding of quality phase by phase nor to substitute it with the existed national and regional systems of quality. The targeted international system requires to operate entirely and directly from the first time. There are different alternatives of phased enhancement. Explication of these follows.

- **Distributive Enhancement**

In the mechanism of distributive enhancement the operation of the current system is to be stopped in one or some of its sub-system(s) substituting it or them with its or their alternative sub-system(s). Having demonstrated the success of this mechanism, it can be implemented in other sub-system(s) until a full substitution is completed, whereupon the new system substitutes the previous system. The following figure depicts the mechanism of distributive enhancement. (Yoon and Klopfer, 2006)

Figure 6: Method of Distributive Enhancement



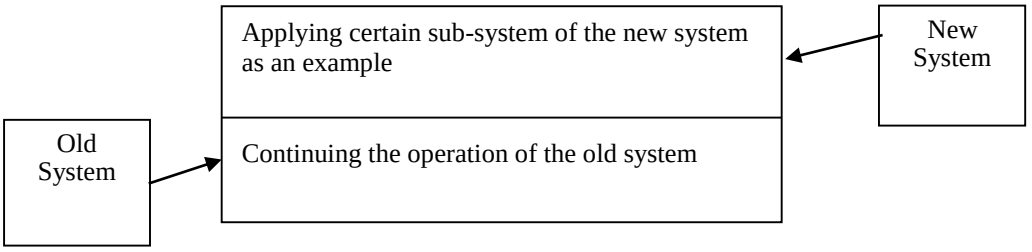

This figure shows that for applying this alternative in educational research generally, this type of enhancement requires try operating one or some sub-systems of the new system with substituting these tried sub-systems with these of the current system. When this try proves its success, it can be generalised to other sub-systems until full substitution of the new system with the current one is completed. However, the type of enhancement the investigation seeks neither requires to try implementing some of the sub-systems of the new international system of 'systematic' understanding of quality nor to substitute the current systems of national and regional quality. It is argued that both of the targeted international system of 'systematic' understanding of quality and the current national and regional systems of quality are to operate together.

- **Exampled Enhancement**

Naumann and Jenkins (1982) indicate that the mechanism of exampled enhancement requires stopping the operation of the current system in one of its sub-systems, where this sub-system includes within its structure a further set of sub-systems which requires to be modified and upon which the sound operation of the entire system. In the case of the success of this experiment, the mechanism of exampled enhancement is then applied within another sub-

system until generalising this experiment in a way that allows a full substitution to be completed, whereupon the new system substitutes the previous system. The following figure depicts the exampled enhancement.

Figure 7: Method of Exampled Enhancement

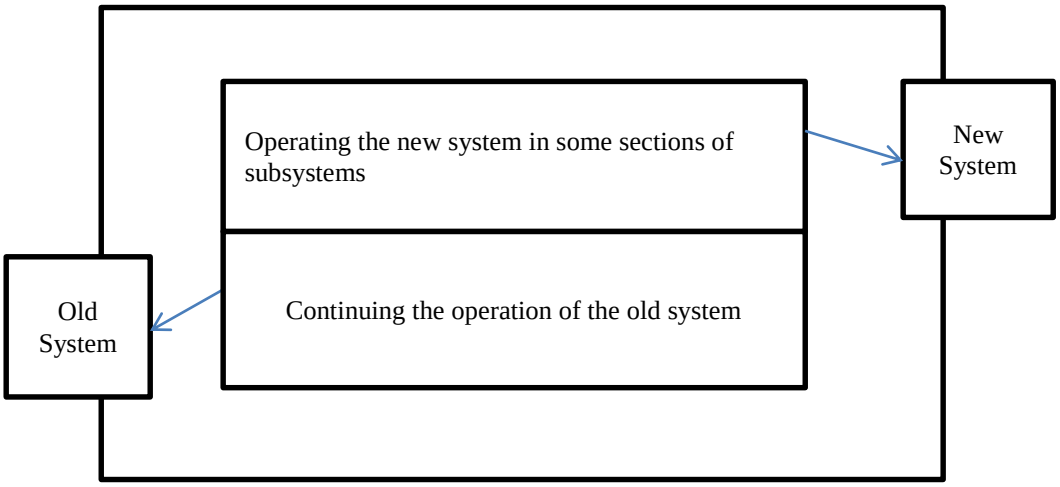



This figure indicates that for applying this alternative in educational research generally, the targeted enhancement requires trying an example in which a unit of the new system is to substitute a unit of the current system. As soon as the trial of this example proves its success, another example is to be applied until substituting the current system with the new one is completed. However, this investigation neither requires to try the new international system of systematisation of quality as trials via example by example nor to substitute the current national and regional systems of quality. Both of the suggested international system of systematisation of quality and the current national and regional systems of quality are argued to work together.

- **Sectional Enhancement**

The mechanism of sectional enhancement focuses on applying the new system in a sectional way. It is achieved by proceeding section-by-section until generalising this experiment in a way that allows a full substitution to be completed, whereupon the new system substitutes the previous system. The following figure depicts the sectional enhancement. (Swanson and Beath, 1989)

Figure 8: Method of Sectional Enhancement




This figure indicates that for applying this alternative in educational research, there is a need to implement the new system section by section with substituting the current system section by section until a full substitution is completed. However, the research presented neither seeks to operate the new international system of 'systematic' understanding of quality section by section nor to stop operating the current national and regional systems of quality. It is targeted that all of the new system and the current systems are to work together.

Although enhancement has different models, they all need a pre-established system for enhancing it. The process of designing a new system needs first to examine the existing one currently operates to decide the most appropriate new system. With the nature of this research, there is no current international system for 'systematic' understanding of quality. As a result, nothing of these models can be adopted as an example. The research seeks to find whether there is a need for 'systematic' understanding of quality. Once this need has been proven, the research articulates a new type of methodologies for the first time naming as 'the creative methodology'. The creative methodology is the manipulation of the creation from none. The ontological stance of the creative methodology is creationism. The epistemological stance of the creative methodology is neediness. This methodology is applied when there is a need to create establishing a new system that did not exist before. This is what probable done in this research. An accurate explication of the creative methodology is located in chapters 13, where the thesis turns its pages on systems design.

## 4.9 Figuration

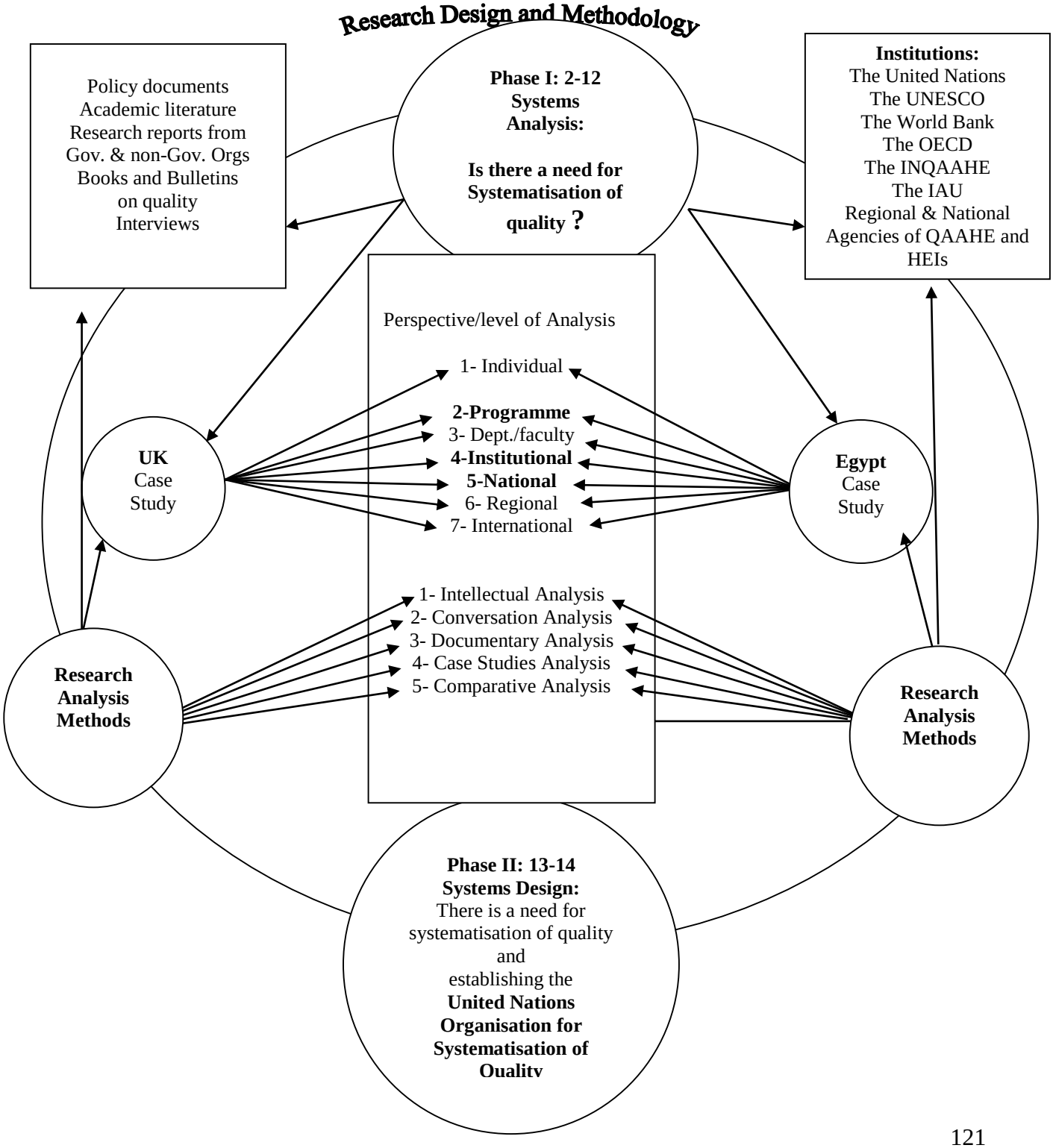
This chapter is the process of problem formulation; selection of design and methodology; comparison of alternatives and selection of the policy; consideration of political and organisational constraints; and the possibility of the research questions to be answered for implementation. Its main tasks are: to know how to gather, organise and communicate information and knowledge in the different sections of the research; to develop a quickly understanding of the nature of problems and the range of possible solutions; to identify the likely challenges and benefits of solutions in order to communicate these to the related organisations; to predict better and more confidently the consequences of alternative solutions; and to understand better the organisational structure of the research in order to predict, and perhaps influence, the feasibility of adoption and successful implantation of the research conclusions and implications. The role of the research is not to replace but to supplement advocacy and to raise the level of the question among interests on whether there is a need for creating and operating 'systematic' understanding of quality. Once the research proved this need, the investigation turns to the research second phase of systems design aimed at articulating a theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the structure of the UN for managing the international accreditation to HEIs worldwide.

Although this is primarily documentary research, the case studies interviews in the UK and Egypt were required in order to generate complementary knowledge and data in areas of research which were not covered by the available documentary sources and the broader academic literature. When conducting interviews in the UK and Egypt, the potential research participants were staff selected from the respective higher education sectors who, it was felt, could deepen the analysis within the chosen analytical frame.

This was the first chapter of this research which constitutes the research design, research levels of analysis typology, and the research methodology. This chapter is the plan of the overall picture of the related research themes and issues in order to generate interpretatively

an original and significant interpretation on the need for 'systematic' understanding of quality. This chapter has analysed how the research has been conducted in terms of sound design and methodology. The following figure depicts the research design and methodology.

Figure 9



The research used a broad range of different methods framed by a documentary systems analysis and design methodology and its results are set out in the remainder of this thesis, as follows.

Phase I Systems Analysis (chapters 5 - 12)
Chapter five: “Quality”.
Chapter six: “Quality of the United Kingdom”.
Chapter seven: “Quality of Egypt”.
Chapter eight: “Quality of Regions”.
Chapter nine: “International Quality and Accreditation of Higher Education”.
Chapter ten: “The United Nations”.
Chapter eleven: “Findings”.
Chapter twelve: “Discussion”.

Phase II Systems Design (chapters 13 - 14)
Chapter thirteen: “Systematisation of International Quality and Accreditation of Higher Education in the World”.
Chapter fourteen: “Impact”.
Chapter fifteen: “Conclusion”.

## 4.10 Summary of Chapter Four

The adopted research methodology is intended to provide greater depth to the research, more attention to the dynamics of the situation and better insights from detailed knowledge and understanding. However, implementing the research methodology caused some difficulties for the researcher. First, the research tools and materials had to be prepared in English, translated into Arabic, and then translated back into English to be presented in the thesis.

While I have the bi-lingual capability for this and have done translation from English to Arabic and vice versa, time is considered. The second difficulty is about interviews with the administrative and academic staff from the UK and Egypt respectively. The process of transcription and data analysis was also time-consuming but data generated from this technique is worth time, money and effort. The third difficulty is getting the required policy documents, most of which was not easy to get, especially in Egypt.

# Chapter Five

# Quality

## 5.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the current features, issues and operations in the development of quality. This chapter begins by analysing the meaning and definitions of quality. It then considers different concepts characterising the features of quality. Certain issues are then analysed. Important in this chapter is introducing three issues for the first time. These three issues are power and politicisation and systematisation of quality to envisage quality explicitly. The chapter ends with an accurate and brief summary.

## 5.2 Terminology

Making definitions related to the most common terms in quality is important to enable partners and beneficiaries to understand the meaning of terms related to quality as they are used in this thesis (see section 1.5 of chapter one and section 2.8 of chapter two and section 6.4.7 of chapter six and section 7.4.7 of chapter seven and see chapter nine). After investigating many existing definitions mentioned in the literature (Harvey and Green, 1993; Nayebpour and Koehn, 2003; Thomas, 2003; GUNI, 2007; Vlasceanu *et al*., 2007; Hobson, 2008), the researcher adopts his own 'systematic' understanding of quality in setting new terminology in regard to the research final stage of systematisation in which 'lower' order levels are linked into 'higher' order level. These definitions follow.

***Quality*:** An overall systematisation combining a set of sub-systematisations for accrediting the quality of higher education.

***Accreditation***: The recognition of the conformance of the performance of certain higher education institution, programme, course, professional activity or infrastructure with the current and future requirements of national, regional and international beneficiaries.

***Higher Education***: A general system combining a number of sub-systems in which governmental or non-governmental organisations specialise in delivering education after secondary (compulsory) education, comprising teaching and learning, research and community outreach and knowledge transfer.

***Academic programmes***: Theoretical and/or practical courses designed to systemise academic and/or practical knowledge or professional experience over a given period of time, leading to qualifications in HEIs.

***Benchmarking***: Measuring quality.

***Criteria***: Specified elements against which quality can be judged, both qualitatively and quantitatively, against a point of reference related to the current and future requirements of national, regional and international beneficiaries.

***Descriptors***: Statements setting out and providing indications about the appropriateness of higher education activities.

***Indicators***: Empirically operational variables for measuring specific characteristics of quality.

***Quality Agency***: Any organisation undertaking the assurance and accreditation of quality.

***Quality Assessment***: Operation of internal or external diagnostic review using methods to judge quality.

***Quality Audit***: Operation of internal reviews of quality.

***Quality Control***: Verification procedures for monitoring quality.

***Quality Culture***: Public awareness and familiarity with the need for quality.

***Quality Enhancement***: Process of changing positively, improving adequately and empowering continuously quality assurance and accreditation in higher education.

***Quality Management***: Process of governing and examining quality.

***Ranking***: Rating and ordering judgments of quality.

***Re-accreditation***: Re-establishing the recognition of the conformance of the performance of certain higher education institution, programme, course, professional activity or infrastructure with the current and future requirements of national, regional and international beneficiaries.

***Reciprocity***: Acceptance by a quality agency of an external judgment conducted by another such agency, declaring that there is a proactive, creative and innovative conformance between the performance of certain higher education institution, programme, course, staff or

infrastructure and the current and future requirements of nationally, regionally and internationally related beneficiaries.

***Recognition***: The formal acknowledgment of quality.

***Stakeholders***: All those who have a national, regional and international need for quality in higher education.

***Standards***: Levels of attainment against which quality can be measured, both qualitatively and quantitatively, against a point of reference related to the current and future requirements of national, regional and international beneficiaries.

## 5.3 Notion

Collins dictionary (2006) defines quality as something of standard, characteristic or feature indicating how good or bad it is. Collins thesaurus (2009) sees quality as a standard measured against similar things or defined as general excellence. These definitions assert that for attaining quality, there is a need for assessing a production process to ensure that goods are of an intended and/or acceptable standard. This research looks at quality as an integrated system of activities to ensure that a product or service meets defined standards with a stated level of confidence.

Vlasceanu *et al*. (2007) and Biggs and Tang(2007) point out that quality has interrelated concepts, such as quality culture; quality control; quality audit; quality assessment; quality review; accreditation of quality; quality assurance. Vroeijenstijn (1995) argues that quality has always been part of the academic tradition and the change is the external interest in making quality more explicit, reflecting a change in the relationship between higher education and society. Such change led to a greater visibility of higher education. Harvey and Newton (2004) argue that quality is too complex to define. However, I argue that quality is something we know it when we experience it. So for anyone seeking quality, experience it to know it. Therefore, quality requires certain demands and procedures. Among these are quality visits, preparing for quality and bodies such as agencies of quality. Harvey and Green (1993) argue that quality is a relative concept in two senses. First, it means different things to different people and even the same person might adopt different conceptualisations

in different contexts. For example, stakeholders are likely to have different perspectives on quality. Second, benchmarks of quality are themselves relative. While some view quality in terms of absolutes, others see it judged in terms of thresholds that have to be exceeded to obtain a quality rating.

Literature (Harvey and Green, 1993; CHEA, 2001; Tempus, 2001; Vlasceanu *et al*., 2007; Kemenade, 2008) indicates that there are five notions on quality. Harvey and Green (1993) advocate the five notions of quality. While CHEA (2001) and Tempus (2001) advocate the third notion, Kemmenade (2008) advocates the fifth. Vlasceanu *et al*., 2007 advocate the first, third, fourth and the fifth notion of quality. The first notion is the exceptional view of quality which is linked to the notions of excellence. This notion seeks the excellence of performance in the operations of HEIs. The second notion is quality as perfection which sees quality as a consistent outcome. This notion asserts that quality can be assessed in relation to the results. The third notion is quality as fitness for purpose which can be linked either to external objectives as defined agencies of quality or internal objectives based on the ability of an institution to fulfil its mission or to fulfil the aims of a programme of study (see section2.3 and section 2.4 of chapter two). It is achieved through meeting standards defined by the agency of quality. Accountability and suitability in this notion are key factors. The forth notion is quality as value for money which sees quality in terms of returns on investment focusing on accountability. Accountability seems to be central to this notion because of limited resources. It focuses how HEIs use their facilities and operations to achieve certain aims and objectives. The growing tendency for governments requires accountability reflecting a concern for value-for-money (see section 5.5 of chapter five). This is because students and their families also increasingly require value-for-money from higher education. The fifth notion is quality as transformation which focuses on the enhancement and empowerment of students and the development of new knowledge.

However, Lomas (2002) argues that this way of classification is not suitable for higher education as it is approach used by much of Japanese motor manufacture and is inappropriate because it is not the purpose of HEIs to produce uniform students. Watty (2003) agrees that higher education does not aim to produce defect-free standardised graduates. Kemmende (2008) sees the fifth notion doing justice to education as a process wherein learners are at the

centre so they get the added value. Vlasceanu *et al*. (2007) argue that the aim of this (fifth) notion is enhancement rather than transformation, focusing on the continuous search for improvement and stressing the responsibility of HEIs to make best use of their autonomy and academic freedom to add value to students through their learning experience. They add that achieving quality is central to the academic ethos and the idea that academics know this quality better than others. While Lomas (2002) argues that none of the five notions is mutually exclusive as quality is often viewed as a blend of two or more, Newton (2007) argues that quality is not a unitary concept as it is open to multiple perspectives. In this regard I argue that quality is a system rather than an enhancing mechanism. However, most HEIs focus on fitness for purpose and value for money for improving the quality of provision and enhancing and empowering students through their experience of higher education.

Kis (2005) argues that the main characteristics of quality are approach, level, methods, data instruments, report, and decision. Accreditation and assessment monitor the quality of teaching and learning. The aim is different with audit which focuses on the internal procedures of HEIs. The operations of quality vary between agencies of quality. However, the focus is mainly on either the institutional level or programme level or both. Kohoutek (2009) argues that there are three basic methods for quality review: self-review; peer-review and/or external review. Quality uses four sources of data: self-review reports; site visits; surveys; and performance indicators. Quality is mainly directed for improvement and accountability. The outcomes of quality include reports on certain higher education institution or programme. The decisions of agencies of quality either giving accreditation, postponing accreditation or not to give accreditation are widely used by funding bodies. The motivation of HEIs to obtain public funding leads them to assure their quality (which is to be accredited by agencies of quality).

## 5.4 Higher Education

I have previously mentioned in sections 2.5 and 2.6 of chapter two that higher education is that kind of education after the secondary (compulsory) education, comprising processes of teaching and learning, research and community outreach and knowledge transfer, and provided by HEIs. Literature (Middlehurst, 1997; Johnstone *et al*., 1998; Holm-nielsen,

2001; Blondal *et al*., 2002; OECD, 2003; Barr, 2004; Jongbloed, 2008; OECD, 2008) shows that there are features characterising the contributions of higher education to social and economic development. The first feature is that higher education creates formation of human capital and labour force. The second feature is that it builds the knowledge base through research and development. The third feature is the dissemination and use of knowledge through interactions and consultancy with the wider economy. Fourth and finally, higher education contributes to the creation of knowledge via teaching and research. Although these four features are mainly economic, I argue that higher education has a central role in the social development of individuals. The knowledge, skills and experience attained from higher education enrich individuals' understanding of themselves and the world. Greenway and Haynes (2003) point out that higher education promotes critical thinking and active citizenship. They add that it improves the quality of individuals' life. HEIs strengthen the knowledge-based and assist in constructing the democratic societies. Their activities provide innovation and constitute the base of the nation's information infrastructure. Lee (2004) argues that the values and attitudes characterising individuals' behaviour can help in constructing healthy societies. Although these benefits come at some cost, they deserve the effort, time, and money.

Higher education raises individuals' creativity, productivity and promotes entrepreneurship and technological advances. It performs a crucial role in improving the income distribution through securing the economic and social progress. I agree with Ozturk (2001) and Jongbloed (2008) that the level of higher education quality in certain country ensures the country's competitiveness in world markets which are characterised with change in technologies and production methods. Quality does so by increasing the productivity and flexibility of the labour force. I argue that there is a relation between the level of higher education quality and the overall productivity of capital. Ozturk (2001) and Lee (2003) point out that more people educated with high quality higher education are more likely to innovate and create. Quality makes education. An explication of this relation is analysed in chapter six (systems design).

Quality makes a difference. Investment in higher education is as important as investment in physical capital. Blondal *et al*. (2002) argue that indicators of the productivity show the motivations for individuals to invest in their own education. Psacharopoulos and Patrinos

(2004) point out that returns to human and physical capital tend to be equal particularly in developed countries. They add that the earnings of higher education educated individuals are higher than those of less-educated. I argue that the nature and level of quality of the individuals' higher education contributes not only to increase their earnings but also to promote their intellectual ability.

Sallis (2002) argues that quality is important for education as it is important for industry. However, Campbell and Rozsnyai (2002) argue that this traditional view has been challenged with pressures from organisations such as UNESCO and World Bank making quality a steering mechanism in HEIs worldwide. Literature (Amaral, 2007; Newton, 2007; Altbach *et al*., 2009) shows that there are certain challenges led to concern about quality and the emergence of quality. Some of these challenges are: massification of higher education; diversification of higher education; the emergence of markets in higher education; financial austerity; increasing demand for accountability; pressures for efficiency gains; addressing the employability agenda; and addressing social and political agendas. This leads me to argue that the increasing demand for higher education has led to increased participation but it has not always been well planned or controlled particularly in developing countries. As HEIs cannot meet the increasing demand for places, quality became an issue. This is because traditional providers (public HEIs) face competition from transnational providers as well as from local commercial providers. Through the internationalisation of higher education, its quality became an international issue.

Reports (OECD, 2004 and 2010) show that the sharp increase in tuition fees and competition for students and funds created markets, where students are considered as customers and HEIs as providers. Meyer (2002) argues that universities have to respond with more flexible and more resource efficient education and training programmes. All these factors have led to increasing concern for quality. With this shift HEIs are seeking to show they are committed to the needs of students by ensuring that both practice and institutional management are operating to the highest standards. This is assured by Brown (2005) who sees that focusing on satisfying the needs of the customer is an effective means of facing and competition amongst HEIs. However, the expansion in student numbers was accompanied by either constant or declining public funding which has been compounded by inefficient use of the

available resources. In addition, HEIs are under pressure to contribute to achieving social and political agendas on access, inclusion, and equity (see sections 5.4 and 5.5 of chapter five). All these challenges accompanied by growing state and public interest in quality and increasing demands for accountability have led to the establishment of agencies for quality as Newton (2007) points out, where by the end of the 1990s concern for quality became global.

HEIs are witnessing a new era of development accompanied with challenges they should face. The increased autonomy to HEIs has led to increasing demands for accountability. The increasing costs of higher education for governments, students and their families has led to increasing demands for accountability in terms of getting value for money. HEIs are part of their communities. They need to meet the public and political demands for education to be more accountable and publicly demonstrate high quality. Floud (2005) argues that the demands for greater efficiency have become deeper and greater. However, Amaral (2007) points out that the massification of higher education is a role in loss of trust and quality. In this way, control and regulation of academic labour seem to have replaced collegiality and trust (Roberts, 2004). Governments are not wholly convinced that markets can deliver quality because markets for higher education and research are imperfect (Weber, 2005). These market inefficiencies as well as concerns about equity provide the basis for government intervention (Schoenenberger, 2005). With these challenges, governments set performance targets and established performance monitoring systems. This helps explain why quality has evolved over the few decades across the world. Campbell and Rozsnyai (2002) point out that the rapidly changing environment of higher education has seen the introduction of national agencies of quality into many countries and its planned introduction elsewhere. Kemenade *et al*. (2008) and Jacob and Rust (2010) agree that these are interesting developments with quality becoming the process for delivering change as a major component of governance in higher education.

The imperfections of markets in higher education led governments intervened to protect students and create what Le Grand and Bartlett (1993) call quasi-markets. Amaral (2007) adds that these markets have been associated with increased institutional autonomy. However, increased autonomy, combined with competition may create difficulties for market

regulation. Calero (1998) argues that the introduction of competitiveness, autonomy and student choice is inseparable from the provision of information through systems of evaluation made available to students and funders. So, through quality, the government intervenes to preserve the public good and manage the rules of the operation using quality as a system to assure the quality of these markets.

## 5.5 Quality

The term ‘quality’ has been introduced in sections 5.2 and 5.3 of this chapter. The development of agencies of quality is a significant trend in the recent decades. Quality became a key topic. Reports (OECD, 2008) show that the expansion, expenditure and increased market pressures foster a focus on quality. The demand for greater accountability has become stronger as growing dissatisfaction with inefficient utilisation of public resources was identified as a problem in many countries. An example of this is Egypt where quality started to operate. Partial reason for such operations is that the public has a right to know what it is getting for its expenditure of tax resources. Cheung (2003) argues that the public have the right to know that their resources are being wisely invested. This makes accountability a crucial issue in higher education and its quality. Although quality started first in the developed countries in 1885 in the USA (see section 5.2 of this chapter), national governments of developing countries imitated this initiative and started to operate quality for satisfying the public that they are offering high quality higher education for their people. An example of this case is Egypt (see chapter seven). However, although the developing countries imitated the developed countries in establishing agencies of quality, the nature of quality in the two contexts are not the same. Personally I experienced this difference. Although Egypt operates currently quality, the quality of higher education and research in Egypt is low compared to the high degree of quality of higher education and research in the UK. This contrasting feature is analysed in chapter four.

Different countries have different forms and degrees of accountability in their higher education policies. Egypt case witnesses a gradual erosion of confidence in the reliability of the public service. The principal force motivating individuals for higher education there is to

benefit from a free offer. Contrasting to this is the UK where there are varieties of interest motivating individuals to go to HEIs which offer value-for-money education. Le Grand (2003) argues that professionals in public sector were viewed as pursuing their own concerns rather than the public interest. Lee and Knight (1996) and Layzell (1991) explain this monetary emphasis on accountability. They interpret this by the linkages between quality, policy and the encouragement of innovative approaches to teaching and learning.

Concerns about HEIs are dominated by issues of cost. The focus on outputs gradually became more prominent. Attempts are made to develop indicators of student learning. Le Grand (2003) argues for this by giving the UK example. He argues that the main focus has been with accountability rather than improvement. I differ with him as quality in the UK concerns for accountability and improvement but lacks systematisation of an overall system combing a set of sub-systems. Quality policy has not addressed transformative learning but has been preoccupied with other notions such as value for money and fitness for purpose. Davies and Thomas (2002) point out that the indicators that have been developed in HEIs have attempted to introduce objective measures of research and teaching competence. Internal and external auditors are demanding for value for money. Quality assessment is just an example of accountability exercises through which HEIs are expected to demonstrate returns on public investment. For example, the Research Excellence Framework in the UK is most significant allocating large sums of money to universities and affecting the reputation of departments through the ratings allocated by the process. However, the lack of systematisation separate assessing the quality of research from assessing the quality of teaching. Neyland (2007) concludes that although the measures to audit teaching have been implemented, they are more limited than those for research.

Lee and Knight (1996) argue that the control of research councils has contributed to value-for-money approach making funding as rewards for excellence. They suggest that these councils have improved the research output. My impressions suggest that these policies have produced research of accepted level of quality. However, the quality of research and the quality of teaching and learning and the quality of community outreach and knowledge transfer need to be systematic. The creation of a quality umbrella body (governing and liaising quality in each sector) may achieve such systematisation. This is because they are in

fact sub-systems of the overall system. Since there is an overall picture for higher education combining a set of sub-pictures, quality needs to have an overall system combining a set of sub-systems.

However, Davies and Thomas (2002) point out a shift towards a culture of churning out the publications accompanied by the feeling of being managed and measured. Their interviewees commented on having less freedom both in terms of day-to-day activities and in the type and nature of their research. Many of their interviewees referred to increased monitoring of academic performance. The conclusions of their study stated that quality requires increased paperwork and monitoring which narrow academic roles around a focus on generating research. In spite of these conclusions, I argue that the increased paperwork and monitoring are necessary requirements to assure quality. We cannot create quality without loads of work and evidences illustrated in papers and documents. Since quality is additional feature, it has its own procedures which must be fulfilled to attain quality. Now and after the era of quality, we cannot imagine our HEIs without quality. If this is a fact, we have to accept the requirements of quality. Even if quality has disadvantages, what on earth has only advantages? The rationale then is to decide that if the advantages outweigh the disadvantages, we can vote positively. I argue that the advantages of quality outweigh its disadvantages.

Both internal and external efficiency of HEIs can be improved by operating quality. This is because quality strengthens and deepens the linkages between HEIs and the labour market. With quality research and development are more closely aligned to business and community development. Reports (OECD, 2008) show such development assists in improving the match between the outputs of HEIs and the needs of economy. Other measures quality designs to improve the quality of HEIs are the inspection systems. While some of these systems examine the quality of teaching others are concerned with the quality of research outputs. Dougherty (2004) exemplifies this complex relation with the case of the USA, where performance accountability has replaced traditional accountability to enhance efficiency of HEIs. He points out that traditional accountability focuses on measures of inputs such as enrolments or processes such as proper use of funds, teacher student ratios or levels of facility utilisation. Performance accountability shifts attention toward outputs such as the number of graduates

or outcomes such as the number of graduates placed in jobs or how well students perform on exams.

## 5.6 Power

Collins dictionary (2006) defines power as the ability to do something. Collins thesaurus (2009) mentions power as specific ability or capacity. It means political, financial, or social force or influence. It means also control or domination. For example, the person or group exercising control, influence, or authority is power. Despite I found no literature on the power of quality, I argue that quality is power. However, the power of quality is a controversial concept because of its omnipresence, its changeability, its reversibility, and its instability. Despite this variety of characteristics, power of quality does not exist on its own. Power of quality, to exist, needs to be exercised in dynamic ways such that the boundaries between the powerful and powerless while both are interacting with one another. It is entirely explicitly delineated, but manifested in sophisticated ways.

Foucault (2002) points out that the dynamics of power consist in that dimension of a relationship whereby A is trying to impose on B's beliefs, knowledge, truths, interests and desires, or specific behaviours that A necessarily wants B to adopt or to change in a manner contrary to B's own interest. He adds that the possibility of B resisting A's power still exists. Should B resist the power A holds over him/her, B would revert, destabilise and change power relation to his/her advantage. However, the power of quality only allows A to enforce B and B cannot change the situation. The decisions of agencies of quality either to give accreditation, postpone accreditation or not to give accreditation cannot be changed by HEIs. The power of quality is clear on staff of HEIs who have to meet certain requirements and declared criteria, without any democracy that staff of HEIs can impose change. In this relation, HEIs are reactive not proactive or even interactive. They react to the actions of agencies of quality, respond to their questions and achieve their requirements. Although quality may not seem democratic but I argue that attaining quality requires some kind of order and regulation given the vital importance of higher education quality. A degree of

control should and must exist because up to a certain point, the quality of higher education should and must be pursued.

HEIs are houses of knowledge. Foucault (1994) connects between power and knowledge. He argues that the connection between power and knowledge can be a vicious circle: the more power, the more knowledge; the more knowledge, the more power. As power recreates itself, knowledge of this power has also to evolve to make resistance possible. However, I argue that knowledge leads to creating power. An example is Japan (after the II World War) where knowledge created the country's power of international scale. Mayo (1998) draws attention to the fact that the more power infuses everything, the deeper the knowledge of the subject about itself becomes. This argument establishes the cycle that power and knowledge go through constant change.

The power relation between HEIs and agencies of quality is a relationship whereby their activities are restrained (dynamically) and restricted between the two parties. Because of these dynamic activities, their interests, strategies, and agendas are constantly reshaping themselves according to the mutative power characteristics of one part (agencies of quality) to the other (HEIs). This endless battle for control over one party by another, originating in a conflict of interests, causes the pendulum of power to oscillate between both parties.

I argue that the nature of the power relations between HEIs and agencies of quality varies according to time, place and individuals. Creating consent (between these parties) requires previous approval and responsibility for the decision from the party which is consenting. Consent is not based on conflict of interests. HEIs and Agencies of quality involved in the consent both recognise the common purpose to which they ascribe. However, this relationship may be characterised by domination from agencies of quality. Burbules (1986) points out that domination involves physical and/or psychological strategies which do not allow the possibility of resistance. He adds that domination involves total control, absolute ruling, and final incontestable command. However, I argue that the kind of domination agencies of quality practice on HEIs is not that kind which may destroys their relations. In spite of this, I consider that this domination involves the use of physical and/or psychological force. HEIs are free not to apply for accreditation from agencies of quality. Gore (1995)

argues that freedom is the essential part and basis for the exercise of power. However, without certificate of quality, HEIs may lose finance, reputation, trust and may also witness shortage in student enrolments due to their low reputation in the sustainable student and labour market. Perhaps there is a need to add a new feature to the relationship between HEIs and agencies of quality. I argue that this feature is compliance. Troman (2000) points out that compliance is considered as a grey area of power relations because it involves negotiation. However, I consider that compliance can only be effective in the case of agreement between HEIs and agencies of quality. This is because when the compliance between HEIs and agencies of quality is a result of an agreement, they close to consent. But when the compliance between them is a result of an explicit or implicit threat, they are close to domination again. The relations between HEIs and agencies of quality may witness resistance. Tanabe (1999) points out that resistance is a dynamic category of power relations. If this is the case, resistance implies a changing of strategies on the part of the one who is exercising power (agencies of quality), as well as on the part of the one over whom power is being exercised (HEIs). That is why resistance by the individual subjected to power makes power so seductive, enchanting and exciting to the subject of power. The more resistance to power, the more gratifying and inebriating the exercise of power will be.

In fact both of national governments, agencies of quality and HEIs are in need for each other. I argue that they are fulfilling each other. The national governments need to make sure that their money given to HEIs has been spent on things value-for-money. HEIs need finance, reputation, trust, and large sustainable student market. Agencies of quality are there to provide HEIs with what they need subject to the level of their quality. National governments need independent bodies (agencies of quality) to provide them with accurate reports about the quality of their HEIs so the governments can decide what proportions of money each higher education institution deserve according to its achievements and according to its level of quality. All of national governments, HEIs and agencies of quality are working in the cycle of public good. National governments need to ensure that their HEIs for which governments provide funding are of satisfactory quality or better, and to ensure speedy rectification of unsatisfactory quality. In addition, operating quality encourages improvements in the quality of HEIs through the publication of assessment reports and annual reports. I argue that the power that quality has is necessary to be operated in the cycle of public good. The cycle of

public good is large and complex and needs order and regulation, without which the public good cannot be manipulated or governed. Quality is there for manipulation and governance of the public good. Power of quality is not only a means of control and direction but also a means of prevention. The power of quality created a shift in the relationship between HEIs, agencies of quality, national governments and individuals, where the power now is located in the hands of the public.

## 5.7 Politicisation

Collins dictionary (2006) defines politicisation as participation in political discussions or activities. Collins thesaurus (2009) mentions that to politicise means to render political in tone, interest, or awareness. Despite I found no literature on politicisation of quality, I have focused on generating a more 'systematic' understanding of the nature of this new issue. I seek to determine the potential outcomes that this new issue could generate. However, despite acknowledging the distinct limits and experimental nature of quality, I argue that quality has the power enough to be politicised (see section 5.5 of this chapter). Currently, the global compact of quality is not about politics but about practical solutions to make higher education best serve all those who can benefit from. Quality promotes concrete and sustained action by its varied operations particularly the private sector, in alignment with broad objectives of national governments through practical solutions and impact. This, for example, is demonstrated in statements of Kell and Levin (2003) claiming that for the compact, the issue of what kind of impact is produced is central not only to the viability of its engagement mechanisms (learning, dialogue and partnership projects) but also to the justification of its very own existence.

A further dimension to the apolitical characterisation of the compact also transpires is what kind of outcomes and changes quality has produced. To date, quality has been commissioned by the national agencies and regional networks of quality. To date, no heads of states summit-level has been held to discuss quality of their national HEIs in spite of its vital importance. Quality is as important as air, water and food. Even at the UN and UNESCO level, quality has not been yet the notion politically. It is time to politicise quality through the discussions

of governments and their national heads of states. What is on earth more important than quality? I have explained previously that quality is a right and not luxury (see section 5.4 of this chapter). People in the different countries should know their right and attain it. National governments should envision what is the means through which quality can be handled? The subjects and matters rotated in the discussions of the UN system and in the discussions of heads of states are not more important than quality. This research and its realisation articulate a design (see chapters 13 – 14 of the thesis) for politicising quality and its power both in the UN and among heads of states.

Quality has had noticeable impact on companies. It has primarily accelerated policy change in companies while catalysing a proliferation of partnerships projects. Similar considerations transpire from the self-reflections of HEIs which operated quality. The reports (OECD, 2008) indicate how quality is becoming ingrained in day-to-day corporate strategy of HEIs. This allows quality to confidently claim that the implementation of quality is producing systematic changes. However, quality has not become yet a discussion on the table of heads of states or even their national governments.

The notion of quality, its power and politicisation is formulated here for the first time. I argue that multi-stakeholder mechanisms and public-private partnerships could increase participation in leading quality to be postulated on the agendas of the global governance. This could open up new participatory policies and partnership mechanisms mediated by a neutral broker (the United Nations). Not only does this transformation can effectively alter the current corporate conduct of quality but also embed the market with social values. People across the globe have in common more than they have in difference. National agencies of quality address the privates of national countries. Regional networks of quality address the regional affairs of their respective region. However and to date, there is no international organisation for governing quality across the globe.

The power and politicisation of quality need to be understood empirically and critically. The current formulation and usage of quality show that national governments and heads of states fail to capture quality within their political relationships. Quality is still compacted in its current existing structures. This failure created the reproduction of unequal power-

relationships between agencies of quality in the developed and developing countries. The current picture of quality worldwide shows that countries started recently to issue memoranda of understanding and mutual recognitions aimed at the mutual recognition of qualifications of HEIs. The vast majority of these agreements are between the developed countries of high level of quality. The level of quality of higher education in the developing countries does not qualify them to conduct agreements of mutual recognition with the developed countries.

Perhaps a kind of global governance can empower the power and politicisation of quality. The current picture of quality across the globe lacks consistency, governance and systematisation. There is no manipulating organisation operates and manages quality in the world. Although it is a global problem, it is not only represented in the absence of the international level of quality but also the negative effects resulting from this absence particularly on developing countries. Beyond problematising the power and politicisation of quality, the thesis seeks to provide richer empirical and theoretical rationale in chapter six.

The current compact of quality is part and parcel of traditional state-based forms. Understanding and critically reflecting on how government-based partnerships operate, what ideas and practices they engender, and what effects they produce can illuminate and advance the democratic qualities, ideological nature and legitimacy of quality towards a new form of global governance. The analytical framework developed in the thesis suggests that agency, ideas and political processes can be employed as useful analytical pointers in understanding how a new form of global governance may create equal power relationships (e. g. quality corporates political responsibilities) between countries.

Quality worldwide is currently comprised by corporations, non-governmental organisations, academics, consultants, experts, independent commissions, and other groups of individuals. This compact crystallises many of these inside-outside relations, particularly the relationships between agencies of quality. Whilst such relationships have often been portrayed as necessary reforms to ensure the quality of HEIs, quality has not been existed yet as a political arena. The thesis has effectively questioned such views and contributed towards advancing a more critical understanding of quality, which is clear in chapter six. However, the thesis understands such reforms, particularly the compact of quality as increasing top-

down management within the wider processes of the neoliberal order. Furthermore, the practices of selective engagement suggest that operations of quality may be not conceived as places where the less powerful countries can raise consciousness about their grievances and opinions in the political spaces, where opposition (from less powerful countries to powerful countries) cannot be managed or even disciplined but only dismissed.

Politicising quality can interrogate the discourse and practices of corporate political responsibilities within the global political economy that have granted capital and capitalists (and therefore their countries) an unprecedented degree of power. In this context, the political responsibilities of quality should be viewed cautiously. Therien and Pouliot (2006) argue that the neoliberal world order relies on the stewardship of its members to accommodate pressures for greater political control. Importantly, the political responsibilities of quality can enable countries to employ quality as a human right and forcing national governments to be consistent with the universal norms. As such, the political responsibilities of quality can be said to legitimise national governments particularly those who did not come to power by democracy. The power and politicisation of quality can challenge the totalitarian authorities at the very root of inequalities and forms of exploitation. This is a fundamental understanding that the political responsibilities of quality conceive any act of heads of states and their national governments as progressive and just. However, I consider that the political responsibilities maintained by the power and politicisation of quality may face highly contested forces (particularly in totalitarian regimes) that view quality as merely a form of regulating HEIs and not a system that can contribute to life development in general.

## 5.8 Systematisation

With the current intensive development in scope, scale, and value worldwide, I created systematisation of quality. Strategic plans of HEIs, national policy statements, international declarations, and academic articles (see references) all indicate the centrality of systematisation in the current world of quality. This research creates to light a new era of international development in the field of quality the research names it ‘systematisation’.

I argue that ‘systematic’ understanding of quality (via a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality) builds on and respects the local context of national countries. This is because (as explained previously) a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to work in addition to national agencies and regional networks of quality. The new era of international development is that an international level of quality called ‘systematisation’ is to be created and systematised by a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for providing the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe. This new era of international development is signified with the systematisation of quality in the world. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is not to be an alternative for national and regional agencies and networks of quality. This means that the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to acknowledge and build on national and regional priorities, policies, and practices. I consider that the attention now given to the international level of quality should not overshadow or erode the importance of the local context. Thus, ‘systematic’ understanding of quality (operated via a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality) is intended to complement, harmonise, and extend the local operations - not to dominate them. If this fundamental truth is not respected, strong possibility exists of backlash and for the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality to be seen as a homogenising or hegemonic agent. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality will lose then its truth and its worth if it ignores or dominates the local context.

The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to be a customised international ‘Systematisation’. This is because the operations of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality are to be systematisation of integrating international, intercultural, and global dimension into the goals, functions, and delivery of quality. As such it is systematic change which is tailored to meet the needs and interests starting from the smallest level of analysis of the world (individual level) and including the biggest level of analysis in the world (the world level), and of each higher education entity across the globe. Consequently, the title of the world of quality before this research is that no operation fits all (No Quality Fits All) but now with this research the title of the world of quality became that systematisation fits all (Quality Fits All).

However, I consider that there are risks and unintended consequences as well as there are benefits from the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. While there are multiple and varied benefits (see chapters 13 and 14), important while focusing on benefits is to be aware of the risks and unintended negative consequences. The rationale for this consideration has many reasons. The first reason is that brain drain from international academic mobility is one example of adverse effect. This is because brain circulation does not acknowledge the threat of academic mobility and the great brain race for those countries at the bottom of the brain chain. The second reason is that the desirability of international accredited qualification can (with a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality) be attained by obtaining formal international accreditation from the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality and overcome the international issue represented in bogus certificates from degree mills, multiple credentials from double-degree programmes, and the rise of accreditation mills certifying rogue operations. The third reason is that, in some countries, the over reliance on income from international student fees is leading to lower academic standards and the rise of 'visa factory programmes'. The forth reason is that the increased commodification and commercialisation of cross border franchising and twinning programmes are threatening the quality and relevance of higher education in some regions of the world. The fifth reason is that the present research investigation shows that systematisation of quality has no risk. However, I consider that it is imperative to be vigilant to different impacts, both positive and negative.

I declare that systematisation of quality is not an end unto itself. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is means to an end, not an end unto itself. This consideration should be taken into account otherwise misunderstood truism can lead to skewed understanding of what a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is or can do. This proposed organisation is to be meant by governing and manipulating the systematisation of quality in the world. The suffix of 'isation' of 'systematisation' signifies that systematisation is a process or means of enhancing or achieving aims (Collins Dictionary, 2006; Collins Thesaurus, 2009). For example, systematisation of quality can help develop international and intercultural knowledge, skills, and values in students through teaching and learning, international mobility, and a curriculum that includes international and intercultural elements. However, the aim is not only internationalised curriculum or increased

academic mobility. Rather the aim is to ensure that students are better prepared to live and work in a more interconnected world. Understanding 'systematic' quality, as a means to an end and not an end unto itself, ensures that all levels starting from the smallest level of analysis in the world (the individual level) and ending with the biggest level of analysis in the world (the world level) are integrated in systematisation in a sustainable manner into the major functions of higher education teaching and learning, research and knowledge production, and service to the wider society.

Because the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is meant by governing and systematising quality, it is important to differentiate between globalisation and internationalisation. Globalisation and internationalisation are different but linked. Globalisation focuses on the worldwide flow of ideas, resources, people, economy, values, culture, knowledge, goods, services, and technology. Internationalization emphasizes the relationship between and among nations, people, cultures, institutions, and systems. This means that the difference between the concept of worldwide flow and the notion of relationships among nations is both striking and profound.

The current picture of quality lacks systematisation. This means that there is rationale for systematisation and articulating a theorisation for establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for governing systematisation of quality. I argue that systematisation of quality will not create domain as the existence of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to be in addition to the current national agencies and regional networks of quality. The existence of national and regional quality and the absence of systematisation of quality with the resulting negative effects represent a problem on how degrees and qualifications of HEIs across the globe can be recognised worldwide. So the importance of my 'systematic' understanding of quality creates the readiness to move to the research second phase of systems design for articulating a theorisation for establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. I argue that systematisation of quality is relevant, reliable and applicable to situations which did not exist before, in new era, to education providers and for the new generations of learners. The creation of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can eradicate the gap between the level of higher education quality in high ranking countries and

that of low ranking countries. This would create wider impact for improving the social, cultural and economic life of people particularly in the low ranking world, as HEIs would have the enthusiasm, guidance and support to attain the international accreditation from a body like the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality.

Creating systematisation of quality underpins the rationale for moving to the research second phase of systems design (chapters 13 - 14). This creation meets a human right gap existing particularly in low ranking countries. I argue that the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality could assist in providing higher education of international quality available for all worldwide on the basis of merit without discrimination.

Systematisation of quality comprises three main features. First, it has been concluded by the research investigation of the documentary systems analysis. Second, it was discussed by participants from the research case studies in the UK and Egypt (see chapter six and seven). Third, it is entirely new. These features illustrate that although theoretical generalisation is the common feature of systems analysis and design methodology in sciences of engineering, computer and information technology, it can be applied to social sciences such as in the present research in terms of by making the creation of 'systematic' understanding of quality rational, feasible and systematic.

The international operations of quality reveal that creating 'systematic' understanding of quality addresses what appears to be missing and its resulting negative effects (particularly on low ranking countries) to complete the entire system of systematisation of quality worldwide. I argue that a more complete seven level to the system of quality called 'systematic' understanding of quality could be expected to have key outputs on, or influences over the three main spheres of economics, politics and society worldwide. The proposed new 'systematic' understanding of quality is designed to provide international accreditation, trust and reputation to the qualifications of HEIs across the globe as well as encouraging HEIs to address global issues and requirements.

The international operations of quality identified the absence of 'systematic' understanding of quality. Not only this absence is the problem but also the negative effects resulting from

this absence particularly on low ranking countries. These operations indicated that key issues like mutual recognitions and memoranda of understanding, the poor reputation and absence of trust in higher education qualifications in low ranking countries in compare to high ranking countries are among the factors rationalising the readiness for moving to the research second phase of systems design (chapters 13 - 14). Otherwise, the gap between quality of higher education in high ranking and low ranking countries will continue to exist, and that the absence of 'systematic' understanding of quality in the world will continue to exist too. This gap increases numbers of unemployment in low ranking countries due to lack of trust in graduates' qualifications. This means the readiness for harmonising and fulfilling the international picture of quality in the world by creating 'systematic' understanding of quality. The research second phase, therefore, addresses how systematisation of quality will operate and how it will be manipulated. The future of systematisation of quality in addition to the expected outcomes and benefits of this creation are also required to be addressed in the research second phase. This illuminates the research strategic impact of global scale on the economic, political and social life of people across the globe. The research second phase is, therefore, constituted to create new era of international development of positive impact on high ranking and low ranking countries and regions around the world. Systematisation of quality, then, creates global impact for the research implications.

## 5.9 Summary of Chapter Five

This chapter addressed the features, issues and operations of quality. It started with an investigation into the features of quality covering mainly the notion, functions, mechanisms, types and legitimacy of quality. This main section (features of quality) introduced a terminology that suits the research methodology of analysis and its breadth and depth global scale. The chapter then moved to the second main section (issues in quality). Most important in this second section is introducing power and politicisation and systematisation of quality. The analysis of these issues highlights their contested nature and that these issues are often inter-related. What is the compulsory element (power) that motivates national governments, agencies of quality, HEIs and individuals to undertake quality? How and why quality should undertake political responsibilities (politicisation)? All these issues have been discussed in

the chapter. Given this outlook, the thesis next step is to investigate quality in depth and detail in the UK and Egypt as two contrasting case studies representing two different regimes and geographical contexts.

# Chapter Six

# Quality of the United Kingdom

## 6.1 Introduction

This chapter investigates current operations in the development of quality in the UK. The data in this chapter has principally been obtained from document analysis and semi-structured face-to-face interviews conducted with: four principal staff from the University of Exeter in the UK. The analysed data is directed to investigate the current operations of quality in the UK, with view to explore the readiness of the context for 'systematic' understanding of quality. To explore this, direct questions on these issues were included in the interview schedule, together with other views and visions interviewees would like to make in case the opportunity is available (see Appendix A).

The case of the UK is presented first followed by the case of Egypt as the UK case has been established first. With each case, the analysis and discussion start from the whole before moving to the part and, then, returning back to the whole. The analysis and discussion of each case start from the whole with an overview for introducing each case followed by an explicit analysis on the operations of development in quality in the UK. The chapter then moves to the part through the analysis and discussion on the development of these operations in the two contexts in depth and detail. The analysis ranges on a number of themes starting from the smallest level of analysis in the world (the individual level) and ending with the biggest level of analysis in the world (the world level). The seven themes of analysis represented in: individual level; programme level; department/faculty level; institutional level; national level; regional level; and the world level are discussed in this chapter. The discussion of the seventh theme (the world level) is placed as the empirical rationale for deciding the potential, and therefore articulating theorisation, for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the structure of the UN for governing the system of systematisation of quality in the world and providing the international accreditation for HEIs across the globe (see chapters 13 and 14). The analysis and discussion return back to the whole through addressing key issues characterising each

case. This main section presents comparably and systematically the main features, issues and operations of quality in the UK. It offers corrective actions to address the weaknesses in the UK. This section presents the importance of systematic vision in the operations of quality. The chapter ends with an explicit and accurate conclusion. An explicit analysis follows.

## 6.2 Overview

The emergence of quality in business and industry has contributed to the establishment of national agencies for evaluating and enhancing the quality of higher education. This process can be seen as cultural phenomenon through which identifying potential challenges facing nations are addressed through socialising quality as a culture and way of life. Vajda *et al*. (2006) point out that in the early 1990s changes within higher education began to influence policy towards quality in terms of implementing quality through the guidelines and norms of national standards. Harvey and Stensaker (2008) argue that the driving forces for quality are directed to demonstrate the quality of work towards a better reputation, and to have better chances in applying for projects, contracts and/or support to maintain quality. Richardson (2002) indicates the reasons for this development by arguing that, in the UK, higher education generally and educational inquiry particularly witnessed a great significance of intellectual continuity and of philosophical, historical and social strands. The Dearing report (Dearing, 1997) explains that quality is not only relevant to enhancing the quality of students' learning but also to equipping them to be effective lifelong learners.

For these reasons the UK established the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) in 1997 as independent and for non-profit agency owned by the organisations that represent the heads of UK universities and colleges to rationalise external quality assurance within higher education that existed up to this date. Although the UK universities and colleges are responsible for managing academic standards and quality of their awards, reports (QAA, 2009) show that QAA judges how well universities and colleges fulfil their responsibility and the effectiveness of their processes aimed at safeguarding the public interest in more than 169 universities and colleges, and of student numbers at individual universities and colleges ranging from 500 to over 150,000.

## 6.3 Operations of Development

The quality of higher education in the UK is public concern. Although this importance is recognised by the government, HEIs, the QAA and partners and beneficiaries, quality in the UK started recently in 1997 with the establishment of QAA in comparison to the USA, where quality started in 1885 (see section 3.2 of chapter three). However, HEIs started seriously in improving the quality of their provision. Brown (2004) points out that the arrangements for quality started with the Further and Higher Education Act 1992 with its abolition of the binary divide in higher education, creation of unitary mechanism of funding and the creation of quality assessment arrangements.

Although this context is new to old universities, the former polytechnics have experienced these types of processes through reviews by Her Majesty's Inspectors, as their academic standards were accredited by Council for National Academic Awards. Clark (2006) argues that quality was created because the Government was determined to ensure the maintenance of quality in teaching and learning. However, King (2006) argues that the regime of quality created additional burdens on HEIs. He adds that it is better for the money spent on the operations of quality and its procedures to be spent on enhancing education and research within HEIs. Although King's argument may be rational but how the targeted enhancement that he argues for can be assessed? Without the operations of quality, it is difficult to assess the quality of higher education and declare the results of this assessment. This means that the money spent on the operations and procedures of quality goes for valid reasons (see sections 5.3 and 5.4 of chapter five).

Not only is the quality of teaching assessed but also the quality of research. Harvey and Newton (2004) point out that assessing the quality of research started in the 1980s. Although its methodology changed over the years, it was based on peer review. In this type of assessment, quality is linked to funding as significant resources depended on the outcomes.

Another form of external assessment Robert (2004) indicates is the quality audit process carried out by the Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC), which was a creation of the institutions themselves and owned by them through the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals (CVCP). Robert adds that its procedures were adopted from the Academic Audit

Unit of the CVCP, introduced in the old universities in 1990. The process also used peer review and was focused at the institutional level. He argues that quality audit considers the autonomy and accountability of HEIs (see sections 5.5 and 5.6 of chapter five). I agree with Robert because the main function of quality audit is to investigate whether HEIs have internal quality systems and whether they are working properly.

By mid-1990s, HEIs experienced quality assessment of teaching, research and institutional management. However, Brown (2004) argues that these types of quality assessment are not desired especially among the old universities, which consider these types of quality assessment as a threat to their autonomy. His concerns are about the amount of bureaucracy involved. Codd (2005) agrees with Brown that some academic staff believed this intrusion into academic affairs should be resisted at all costs, and differs with him in that the majority recognised that there should be some accountability for one of the main functions of universities. However, I argue that the lack of desire towards quality Brown argues for might be because of the lack of familiarity with the features and operations of quality. Thomas (2005) points out that many staff accepted reviews as a useful purpose and some welcomed the increased attention being given to the quality of teaching and learning. Clark (2006) agrees with Thomas and argues that the only concern is about the resources needed and the time taken to participate in these types of quality assessment.

The current operations of quality in the UK have been preceded by work and research. This means that quality in the UK is based on creation emanated from research and studies. Brown (2004) points out that the proposals introduced since 1993 for a single quality assurance regime led in 1997 to the creation of the QAA which took over responsibility for assessing teaching from the funding councils and institutional audits from the HEQC. However, the responsibility for assessing research remains with the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE), which is to be replaced by the Research Excellence Framework in 2013, and funding councils. The QAA continues to audit quality control procedures and monitors quality relying on institutional self-regulation. In spite of this, King (2006) argues that the QAA is imposing a significantly resource burden on HEIs.

Documents (QAA, 2002) show that the QAA is a buffer agency independent of the UK governments and owned by the organisations that represent the heads of HEIs in the UK. HEIs in the UK are responsible for managing the standards and quality of their awards. The QAA carries out external review of their quality. The QAA assesses how reliably HEIs fulfil their responsibility. It assesses also the effectiveness of their processes. This means that the QAA safeguards the public interest in relation to higher education qualifications. In addition, it encourages HEIs to keep improving their quality.

The QAA performs its role in assuring the quality of HEIs in the UK. The quality of HEIs is assured through conducting external reviews at institutional level. Documents (QAA, 2006) show that amongst the roles of the QAA is to advise the government on applications for degree awarding powers and university titles. It also describes clear academic standards through academic infrastructure. This is done through: the frameworks of higher education qualifications; the codes of practice for the assurance of academic quality and standards; and subject benchmark statements and programme specifications. Most important is to offer advice on academic standards and quality to partners and beneficiaries. The roles of QAA lead me to argue that the institutional-level reviews reduce the amount of external scrutiny and recognise the institutional autonomy.

Documents (QAA, 2009) show that the external review/audit is the main approach for institutional level assessment. There are three methods of review: self-review; peer-review; and external examiner for providing independent professional opinion on the appropriateness of the assessment of students' performance and standards achieved on graduation. The approach followed in assuring the quality of HEIs in the UK is the external review/audit. Data of assessment is gathered through: self-review report; site visit report; survey; students' work; and external examiners' reports. The nature of these reports is mainly qualitative detailing standards and quality. The result of these reports can be either formative represented in quality improvement or summative represented in accountability. The outcomes of this operation have significant impact on the reputation of HEIs as the reports are published publicly (see sections 3.2.6 and section 3.2.10 of chapter three). The QAA links these outcomes with the higher education funding councils for consideration.

It is clear from the documents (QAA, 2009; 2010) that quality in the UK have two main purposes: improvement; and accountability. Regarding improvement, the QAA reports to the audited HEIs with recommendations for further consideration, with a view to identify the good practice. Follow-up procedures are there to ensure that HEIs continue managing academic standards and quality. Regarding accountability, the full report is published publicly on the website of the QAA. Publishing these reports enables partners and beneficiaries particularly students to make their decisions on which higher education institution they would enrol based on the published reports of the QAA. In case that certain higher education institution receives a judgment of low confidence, the report is published with a programme of follow up action. In case that this institution still not progressing satisfactorily after implementing the remedial plan, the funding councils reserves the right to withdraw some or all of its funding.

Documents (QAA, 2005) show operations of quality in the UK start with the preparation of internal self-evaluation through reports and documents. The QAA then arranges for peer review site-visit, where institutional audit encourages self-evaluation and offers opportunities for enhancing institutional management of standards and quality. These audits take place every six years. The visits last over five days where the audit team speaks to staff and students and reviews relevant reports and documents. Although these reviews comprise some postgraduate research programmes to see how research activities inform learning opportunities, the quality of research is reviewed through the Research Excellence Framework (previously the Research Assessment Exercise). Bush (2007) points out that the results of the research reviews impact on the funding allocated to HEIs. He argues that it has a serious impact on the reputation of departments through the published ratings. The team makes a judgment about confidence that can be placed in terms of academic standard and quality of learning opportunities. Once HEIs prepared their internal self-evaluation reports and documents, the QAA arranges for institutional audit through peer review and site visit. The results of the site visit vary to include: confidence; limited confidence; or no confidence. The report is published on the website of the QAA while follow up procedures are taken when required. However, the process does not finish by reaching this result as continuous improvement takes place, where a mid-cycle follow up serves for HEIs and QAA on the continuing management of standards and quality. This mid cycle is normally three years after

an institutional audit, and is a paper-based exercise conducted by two senior officers of the QAA drawing upon institutional reports and documents.

## 6.4 Levels of Development

The main intellectual frame that underpins the following depiction of current operations in the levels of development of quality in the UK generally and in the University of Exeter particularly as an exemplar is documentary analysis depending on the available data from of the University of Exeter, and accompanied with semi-structured face-to-face interviews with four key experts from the University of Exeter. The structure of the analysis is set out in relation to seven themes covering: individual level; programme level; department/faculty level; institutional level; national level; regional level; and the world level.

### 6.4.1 Individual Level

Students are seen as key partners in the teaching-learning evaluation process. Documents (University of Exeter, 2010a) show students are asked in the University of Exeter to give their views about the programme, course and/or class. This reflects upon good and bad features of the educational provision they encounter. Regarding the individual academic staff, documents (University of Exeter, 2010b) show that the University has preparation policy for new staff to introduce them to the University and introduce the University to them. The preparation process includes personal, academic and professional development and their role within it. This preparation is linked to a discussion of equality, diversity and the needs of students. I argue that this preparation qualifies them to deal with different issues including: assertiveness; dealing with stress; performance management; delegation skills; presentation skills; time management; project management; leading teams; and recruitment and selection.

The interviews reveal that the University of Exeter operates quality assurance through the work of expert administrative staff. The expert interviewees were asked about their individual duties and responsibilities regarding quality assurance and the main roles of the University (teaching and learning, research, and community outreach and knowledge transfer). The

perceptions of participants indicate that quality in the UK is in the hand of administrative staff. To reflect this expert R said: "*my work is a central role…..I am responsible for the research policy which includes managing research and monitoring……research and knowledge transfer…..responsible for the finances, collecting data about higher education business survey"*. Expert A said: *"I deal with the facilities making sure that the finances are there and the administrative processes are alright…..we provide support for the academic staff and we facilitate the work in the school*". Expert H said: *"I have no responsibilities other than teaching and learning and my responsibilities for teaching and learning are several, but the most important are that I am responsible for the development of academic policy and education strategy…..the way that the university meets its ambitions for education"*. Expert D said *"I am responsible for the development and operation of the university quality assurance processes but which it maintains quality and standards with the national UK framework and I oversee the way the university works in this area"*.

These answers reflect quality assurance as it is applied to the main spheres of activities of the University of Exeter. The answers of the experts reveal that the three roles of the University (teaching and learning, research, and community outreach and knowledge transfer) are separated from each other in terms of finance and administration. Teaching and learning is the function responsible for imparting deliver knowledge and skills to students to enabling them to engage in the society and benefit themselves and their society. Research is seen as opening up new paths and envisaging up to date perspectives for addressing challenges and goals targeted by society. To reflect this, expert R said that *"there are 620/630 academic staff who have contract to do research as well as teach and those who are the ones we monitor"*. Community outreach and knowledge transfer exist to promote social commitment via creating new paths between the university and society and getting in engagement.

Most important is that the answers of the experts reveal that the administration of teaching and learning is separated from the administration of research which is also separated from the administration of community outreach and knowledge transfer. These perceptions indicate the lack of systematisation. The administration of these three branches could be under an overall system to combine within it a set of sub-systems comprising the three roles of higher education. The answers of expert R reveal that academic staff are meant by teaching

and learning, research and community outreach and knowledge transfer. However, quality is not in their hands. I argue that academic staff are in the best position to operate quality in the UK rather than delivering its operations to the hands of administrative staff. The answer of experts is consistent with Underwood (2000) and with Harvey and Stensaker (2008) who argue that the purpose of enhancing quality of teaching and learning in British higher education is of very direct concern to students, both current and prospective. Although I agree with them, I argue that ideas about the direction in which quality should be enhanced lacks systematisation. Underwood adds that quality is of concern to academic staff who are the subject providers. This rationalises the need to transfer the operations of quality in the UK from administrative staff to academic staff as preface for systematisation.

### 6.4.2 Programme Level

Any academic programme that is degree-based with dedicated curriculum involves components such as students, teachers and facilities that are necessary to run that programme. The programmes in the Graduate School of Education, University of Exeter have curricula which are coherent and structured according to set of goals with related contents, procedures and means that determine the teaching and learning activities. Expert A was asked about the administration of academic programmes. The reflection was that *"we have the programme administrator who looks after the programmes and looks after the quality assurance"*. This answer reveals that the quality of programmes is administered by administrative staff. This is surprising because academic programmes are a repertoire of activities for students and teachers to reach goals that are set for the students to be qualified for certification. This means that the nature of quality of programmes is academic which should be administered by academics. This is because the programmes include academic activities related to students and their teachers and not related to administrative staff.

I noticed that schools and academic units are required to systematise operations of programmes. I argue that systematisation can create the national relevance and the global significance. The required 'systematic' understanding of quality is to connect periodic review with institutional process, and can be connected further to the national, regional and international levels. In spite of this, I consider that the operations of annual monitoring allow

the schools and the University to provide secure mechanism with which to assure themselves that programme is meeting the targeted aims. This would also impact effectively on the wider society through learning outcomes of these programmes. I observed that the University of Exeter provides equal importance to the different programmes regardless of the impact on society. For example dance education and engineering have the same importance and given equal attention. Although this performance denotes equity in theory but the practice rationalises that not all programmes are of the same importance. For example, the projects of engineering affect and facilitate the daily life of people and meet their life needs. But dance education denotes personal interests and does not affect our life like what engineering does. This means that programmes should be scaled according to their importance and strategic value.

Experts were asked whether the School follows the University or it has its own regulations. Expert A said that *"we receive the instructions from the University and then we implement them for our own programme and this is what we specifically do*". This answer denotes the centrality of managing programmes in the University. However, Expert A reported that the School is entitled to propose new programmes to stimulate innovation and creation. Expert A added that *"we are responsible for proposing new programmes, so any innovation on how we teach modules lies with us…..it is an organised autonomy to innovate and create under the supervision of the university"*.

It has been reported that the programmes operated in the schools are consistent with the national agenda and of significance to the global economy. This perception is consistent with the literature (Harvey and Green, 1993; Floud, 2005; Harvey and Stensaker, 2008; Harris, 2011) which shows that quality in the UK is of national relevance and global significance. This perception was informed by expert H who said that *"we are there to provide programmes that meet employment of our students whether that is national or global economy"*. In spite of this significance, my considerations about the programmes in the schools are implied in the potential for a collective systematic vision that can envision each programme as a sub-system that is part of the overall system in the University.

Although the programme specifications are well established, it could be enhanced if they were systematically designed. Documents (QAA, 2010) indicate that the QAA Code of Practice assesses the processes used by institutions to approve, monitor and review academic programmes. This fosters the culture of continuous enhancement of provision. However, Turjansky and Morries (2009) argue that if the institutional mechanisms exist to recognise and commend good practice in the context of a specific programme or discipline area, the potential to spread this more widely is not always realised. They add that the QAA offers little direction as to how enhancement can be achieved. I argue that the systematic vision can assist in creating this targeted enhancement. This is because systematisation combines between the dispersed parts and organise them as sub-systems which are parts of the overall system. 'Systematic' understanding of quality envisions the whole then moves to the part and returns back to the whole.

### 6.4.3 Department/Faculty Level

At departmental/faculty level, there is a record of the annual documentation of the research outputs/publications of academic staff in the individual departments. Documents (TQA, 2010) indicate that the School's performance is assessed against range of quality parameters. These parameters include: admission, progression and completion data; previous monitoring report; monitoring of modules; external examiner's reports accompanied with University and School responses; consultation with employers and former students; staff evaluation; student evaluation; and programme aims. To ensure accountability, school audit meeting is overseen by a member of the school who is independent of the process of annual monitoring. To reflect this operation, expert R said that *"based on the annual monitoring we do every year through the institutional audit, we look at the performance, quality and academic staff…..quality profile at three levels and overall quality profile: one for the environment, one for esteem……and one for the outputs……we get the grades and the comment over every submitted subject area"*.

In spite of this, the interview with expert A reveals that there is no dedicated systematic structure in the Graduate School of Education at the University of Exeter for assuring and accrediting quality of teaching and learning, research and community outreach and

knowledge transfer. I noticed that these three branches of School's roles are administered separately. I argue that the systematic administration might be more effective. This is because these three branches are connected together and should be administered under an overall umbrella system. To assure this, expert A said that *"we have one person who is responsible for the quality assurance programmes…..we have a structure but it is not uniquely for quality assurance"*.

Operations of quality assurance in the Graduate School of Education, University of Exeter tend to focus on academic programmes and not on departments. I noticed that the School operates as professional community characterised by practices aimed at developing students. I argue that the structure of the School needs to be reformed into departments, with a view that each department has its own programmes. In case that this reform is approved, I suggest implementing the systems analysis and design methodology to underpin the reform. This is helpful in transferring from the current operations to the targeted system. In addition, the consistency between the system of the School and the systems of the university, country, region and the world should be taken into consideration.

Documents (University of Exeter, 2010d) show that schools and academic departments in the University are reviewed on annual basis to assure continuing quality and relevance. The aim of annual monitoring for the School and University collectively is to provide a secure mechanism with which to assure that the programmes of schools are meeting their aims and learning outcomes effectively. I noticed that the Graduate School of Education treats programmes collectively for purposes of review and audit while, at the same time, identifies and addresses any matters of concern in programmes.

### 6.4.4 Institutional Level

Reviewing the website of the University of Exeter leads me say that the analysis of the institutional level can be overviewed via three main categories which include teaching and learning, research, and community outreach and knowledge transfer. I noticed that schools of the University operate differently. In spite of this differentiation, the University is the governing body of each of these schools. The responses of the interviewees reveal that each

school administers itself differently. They concluded that the main part of monitoring performance is the academic performance and how it moves towards the Research Excellence Framework which replaces the RAE. They added that the government wants to make sure that the research impact goes to help industry and economy. I noticed that the University of Exeter did very well in the UK's 2008 RAE, improving the quality of research and submitting significant number of staff. This means that the university is on the way to achieve its strategy. The interviewees explain that the RAE and subsequent the Research Excellence Framework which is going to take place in 2013 is a national peer-review process for assessing the University's research quality. Expert R asserted that *"the University manages research and deals with the research assessment exercise on behalf of the schools……we get the academic work from the schools and we send them to the RAE. Research in Exeter is separated from community outreach and teaching and learning"*.

What facilitates combining research agendas in schools together is the University's overall agenda of research. However, the operations have the potential to be systematic. The agenda of the University can represent the overall system combining the sub-systems of schools' agendas. Expert R was asked about this development. The answer was that *"the agenda for research within the University of Exeter is identified by the University and not by the RAE"* while *"community outreach and knowledge transfer is operated centrally through the university and not via every school".* This answer reveals that quality of research is not accompanied with the quality of community outreach and knowledge transfer. The University contributes to community services through the process of community outreach and knowledge transfer. The interviewees reported that the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCF) identifies categories of community service and the University proceeds to address these categories. This means that this process follows a reactive approach, where the University does not report back to HEFCE on what has been achieved in the field. It would be better if there was kind of interaction and feedback from the University to report on the developmental engagement with the community.

Expert R was asked whether it is better for every school to have its own plan of quality assurance. The answer was that *"yes, for example community outreach in the School of Engineering is higher than the School of Drama because of the nature of specialisation as a*

*vocational"*. Perhaps the reason for this separation is because operations of quality assurance are not located in the hands of academics. The administrative staff (who operate quality in the University) might be not familiar like academics with the potential to connect quality of teaching and learning with quality of research and with quality of community outreach and knowledge transfer. I argue that it is time to transfer the operations of quality from the hands of administrative staff to the hands of academics who are specialised and more familiar with the nature of higher education and the requirements of its quality.

### 6.4.5 National Level

In August 1997 the QAA took over the quality assurance functions of the Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC). Just over two years later the QAA announced the final details of the new 'Quality Framework' which was to operate from 2002. The QAA tries to achieve many roles and tasks. Hacham and Sheinman (2003) point out some of these roles which include the promotion and maintenance of quality and standards in higher education provided by or in collaboration with the UK universities and colleges. They add that the QAA is meant by enhancing teaching and learning, and the identification and promotion of innovation and good practice in teaching and learning. Brown (2000) adds another role represented in the provision of information and the publication of reports on quality and standards in HEIs.

HEIs in the UK are autonomous and accountable bodies. Hendry (2010) points out that every higher education institution in the UK is responsible for the quality of education it provides and the standards of the awards it makes. He adds that each institution has its own internal quality assurance procedures. Each university sets its mission and part of its mission is to teach and undertake research to support society and support economy and outreach. This reflection is perceived by expert H who said that *"most British universities look to provide some public benefits"*. I observed this reflection in the University of Exeter. For example, the University of Exeter has an interest in understanding the economic and social implications of environmental change and it is setting up environmental sustainability institute. I argue that the discipline of this new institute is an important area of public policy. This new project can impact also on the amount of funding the University receives from the funding bodies.

The universities in the UK started to address issues of national relevance and global significance. This is reported in the answers of expert R when asked about the priorities of the UK universities in teaching and research. Expert R answered that *"some international priorities like climate change, economic crisis, peace and issues of immigration are addressed by research councils…..at the moment, I am working on a new research strategy for the University around key performance indicators…..about what impact is our research having in the UK"*.

Meanwhile, British universities put considerable effort into attracting international students. Expert H was asked about the mechanism followed by the UK universities in this aspect. The answer of expert H was that *"the development and operation of quality assurance processes maintain quality and standards with the national UK framework*". The answer of expert H reveals that the UK universities have international perspectives in programmes and guidelines to investigate what they teach from international concepts to address international perspectives. However, expert H reported that some kind of harmonisation is required by the UK universities to create consistency between the national relevance and the global significance. The answer of this expert denotes that this area needs further enhancement by commenting that *"I believe that we need both national agenda and international agenda"*.

I argue that adopting international perspectives is beneficial for high and low ranking countries. However, Expert D considered that the low ranking countries are more in need to adopt such perspectives. The issue of politicisation I addressed in section 3.4.10 of chapter three is reflected here. It is time to politicise quality and to discuss its issues and concerns on the tables of heads of states and between national governments. To reflect this, Expert D argued that *"developing countries may be in more need……I am sure that they are in more need to develop their higher education sectors, their economy and their society"*.

### 6.4.6 Regional Level

The UK is a European country and is a member of the European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA), which was established in 2000 to promote European co-operation in the field of quality assurance. Documents (ENQA, 2003) show that

the ENQA has safeguarded the public interest through adopting sound standards and guidelines of higher education qualifications and encouraging continuous improvement in the management of quality of higher education.

Another structure at the regional level associated with the European Higher Education Area is the Bologna Process emanated from Bologna Declaration in 1999. Documents (ESIB, 2008) indicate that the overarching aim of the Bologna Process is to create a European Higher Education Area (EHEA) based on cooperation and academic exchange that is attractive to European students and staff as well as to students and staff from other parts of the world. The envisaged EHEA will facilitate mobility of students, graduates and higher education staff. The EHEA aims to prepare students for their future careers and for life as active citizens in democratic societies, and support their personal development. In addition, the operations of the EHEA offer broad access to high-quality higher education based on democratic principles and academic freedom.

It is clear that both ENQA and the EHEA exist to promote the cooperation between the European countries in the field of quality assurance and ease the recognition of degrees and other qualifications. However, they are only networks and processes and neither of them performs the operations of assuring and accrediting the quality of HEIs. They are similar to other regional networks in the field of quality (see chapter five). Expert D was asked about the impact of such regional networks on national higher education. The answer reveals that the cultural dimension is the governing factor to establish these networks. However, he expressed that these networks face challenges and difficulties. Expert D said that *"quality assurance agencies in each country reflect their culture and the relationship between the institutions and the state…..Bologna Process faces challenges of difficulties of broad equivalence, [as] there are commons and differences"*. Although the existence of these regional networks facilitates the work among the member countries, these networks lacks systematisation. The connections are only limited to the national agencies of quality and not at the institutional level across HEIs. Being the core of quality, HEIs need to engage in communication with these regional networks.

### 6.4.7 The World Level

Interviewees were asked about probing this, they concurred that systematising quality could be secured through negotiations and agreements with HEIs themselves being part of such operations. This is clear from the answer of expert D saying that *"we have kind of development which is to look at globalising programmes to make sure that the international dimension is at all types of programmes. We want to internationalise because we want to make sure that we have wide range of students from all over the world to take our programmes and to contribute to our teaching and learning"*. Systematising quality facilitates exchanging degree recognition and accepting students from other parts of the world so as to formalise equivalence of standards. I consider that section 8.2.1 of chapter eight reveals that the European region established the European Higher Education Area, the European Consortium for Accreditation and the European Network for Quality Assurance to facilitate mutual recognition among European HEIs. However, systematisation of quality via the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to provide the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe (see section 1.5 of chapter one and section 2.8 of chapter two and section 5.2 of chapter five and section 7.4.7 of chapter seven and see chapter nine).

Working with HEIs in high and low ranking countries to build their capacity and to help countries forward requires international systematisation to make this easier. Such framework is beneficial to both high and low ranking countries. This is feasible because higher education is adequate for internationalisation. For example, research of HEIs can serve internationally as well as locally. However, the key issue is funding and resources for conducting research of high quality. Expert H was asked about this issue and the answer was that *"increasingly in the United Kingdom, the research that has to be funded needs to show that it has impact on the local society and also on the international society…..it needs to take into account that it has impact on the environment"*. However, research needs to meet international needs. To reflect this, expert H said that *"some of the research in the schools meets international needs and some does not"*. This leads me to argue that academics need to evaluate their research and whether it impacts on both local and global society.

Expert R was asked about the potential for internationalising quality via establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality and its relation to research. The answer was that *"research is unique piece of information each time that needs to be assessed and it can be assessed internationally via review panel. If the suggested organisation is to provide international research areas, I think yes, there is need for establishing a United Nations organisation for International Quality assurance and Accreditation in Higher Education. I can see gap in the international area because national operations meet national requirements, regional operations meet regional requirements, but there is no international operation for meeting the international requirements. Logically you can argue for that, but you need to think about who would monitor it, who would pay for it and who would benefit from it"*. This answer is interesting because it leads me to envision how the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality will be operated. I argue that outstanding experts and academics from across the globe can be elected to come together to operate the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. However, the selection of these operators should be based on qualitative dimensions such as expertise and contribution and not based on quantitative such as representation and numbers. Regarding funding the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality, money can be collected from member states of the UN. In addition, every higher education institution or programme seeks to be accredited internationally from the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality has to pay fees which can be used in funding a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality.

The perspective of expert R agrees with the perspective of expert H on the potential of systematising quality. However, Expert H added the rationale of gathering data from across the globe to compare between nations. This is what the research did in chapter four, where I investigated current operations in the development of quality in the UK and Egypt. The investigation of the research case studies produced significant comparative findings. The potential of the two contexts for internationalisation is presented in this section. I asked expert H about the potential for systematisation of quality and establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. The answer of expert H was that *"at the moment, we need to gather data from across the globe to compare between nations to proceed with the global needs. To meet global vision, you would have to have an organisation*

*internationally. We need international organisation because you would not have that from individual nations. If you need to proceed with the global agenda, you will have to establish international organisation to deal with that. You need to establish the organisation first, secondly to set criteria, and thirdly to identify how you will achieve them. What is good for your neighbours is good for you. It would have to be regulated. You would have to have international body to organise that. If you are going to create this new era of international development, you would have to have that organisation. There is need for creating this new era of international development"*.

However, the perspective of expert R envisions that each country should meet the international agenda according to its national needs. Expert R envisioned that *"the best thing is to establish international agenda and each nation operates it according to its needs and then the institution operates it. There should be international organisation for quality assurance and accreditation in higher education".*

I argue that occupying first grades in world rankings does not necessarily mean that these world class HEIs meet international needs. This means that a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to regulate complex questions on how to set international agreement about the way HEIs should address the needs of the world. Expert H was asked about his vision regarding this issue. The perspective of expert H on this complex issue was that "*there is a need for such organisation to regulate big questions on how such organisation is going to set international agreement about the world. Then every country will work towards common global goals for the good of humanity"*. I consider that each country has the right of freedom to work towards common global needs for the good of the world. However, I argue that it would be better if operations of countries and their HEIs towards addressing global needs are based on the 'systematic' understanding of quality from body like a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. The question arises here is how can the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality succeed on what the heads of states and their governments cannot do? How will the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality achieve what regions cannot achieve? In case that the soft creation of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality turned to hard creation, it is recommended to assist HEIs on how they can meet both national and

international need. The hard creation can bring outstanding experts and academics from HEIs across the globe for operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality.

I consider that the international priority is complex question. However, I argue that international priorities should be filtered through the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality to examine where are the priorities for the world? This means the potential for internationalisation on big issues like quality that have to be addressed at international level. Expert H was asked about this complex issue and the answer was that *"although the agenda of my University is focused nationally, there are interests on what issues affecting the world and then we align ourselves with these priorities"*.

Experts were asked whether quality of teaching and learning, research and community outreach and knowledge transfer are ready for internationalisation. Regarding internationalising quality of teaching and learning, the answer of expert D was that *"internationalisation would either require each country to agree to harmonise their internal operations or it would require some umbrella body to find a way to recognise and evaluate the differences in the internal operations and decide the extent to which they are broadly comparable and equivalent"*. For internationalising quality of research, the answer of expert H was that *"the best thing is to establish an international agenda and each nation operates it according to its needs and then the institutions operate it*". Regarding internationalising quality of community outreach and knowledge transfer, the answer of expert R was that *"yes, certainly and due to international needs, an international office has been established in the University, and it is part of the group called 'Communication and Partnership' divided into three parts: knowledge transfer as one part and international is another part and communication is a third part"*. However, I noticed that some schools deliver knowledge transfer more than others. My notice is confirmed by Expert R who said that *"community outreach and knowledge transfer in School of Engineering is higher than the School of Drama because of the nature of specialisation as vocational"*.

The answers of experts reveal that the operations of the University of Exeter are ready for internationalisation. For example, the University of Exeter wants to be one of the top 100

universities in the world and it has its own strategy for attaining this aim. It is clear that the University wants to be international in everything it does. Expert R was asked about the potential for internationalising current operations in quality assurance in the University of Exeter and the answer was that *"we have a very big research unit. We are aware of these challenges. We are trying to do our part regarding that and in the last few years, we became aware of such global issues"*. Experts stated that quality of academic programme is capable for internationalisation as it offers educational experience of high quality. To examine the nature of experience the programme offers, experts were asked whether implementing systematisation of quality can entitle the programme to offer educational experience of national relevance and global significance. Expert A from the UK answered *"yes, we are responsible for proposing new programmes. So any innovation on how we teach modules lies with us. Quality assurance is the way we approve programmes and the way we monitor them"*. Expert D answered that *"to me, quality assurance is about maintaining academic standards of degrees and the quality of learning opportunities"*. Expert H answered that *"although the agenda is focused nationally, there are interests on what issues affecting the world via research councils and then we align ourselves with these priorities"*. Expert R answered that *"Yes, there is need for this international era of development"*.

## 6.5 Summary of Chapter Six

This chapter discussed quality of the UK. The chapter provided an overview to quality of the UK. An explicit indication was then introduced to explicate the operations of development in quality. The chapter then moved to analyse quality in a unique hierarchy which started from the smallest level of analysis in the world (individual level) and ended with the biggest level of analysis in the world (the world level). The thesis now turns its pages to present quality of Egypt which is investigated in the next chapter.

# Chapter Seven

# Quality of Egypt

## 7.1 Introduction

This chapter investigates current operations in the development of quality in Egypt. Data of this chapter was gathered from interviews with four academic staff responsible for quality in Mansoura University in addition to document analysis. An open survey questionnaire was conducted with fifty one academic staff from higher education of Egypt to accomplish the shortage of documents as quality in Egypt is still under development. In addition to the overview and operations of development on quality of Egypt, the analysis and discussion of the research case study in Egypt is structured mainly around seven themes: individual level; programme level; department/faculty level; institutional level; national level; regional level; and the world level. Most important is the seventh theme which explored the potential to articulate theorisation for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the United Nations to provide international accreditation for HEIs across the globe. An explicit analysis follows.

## 7.2 Overview

Quality in Egypt is one of the projects of the higher education reform strategy governed by, and represented in the Higher Education Enhancement Project (HEEP). Reports (The World Bank, 2004) show that Egypt is restructuring its economy to compete in global environment. To successfully compete in this international marketplace, Abdalla (2004) argues that Egypt needs to have the capacity to fully participate in new knowledge-based enterprises. He adds that the speed with which the country makes this economic transition will either be facilitated or hindered by the quality its higher education and its capacity to bridge the growing challenges.

As one of HEEP projects, quality in Egypt is culmination of development connected with political, economic and social life. An aspect of current operations in the development of

higher education is quality. However, operations of this development need to be connected with political, economic and social development. For example, President Mubarak (2004) asserts on the national need to fulfil cherished aspirations for quality and efficiency so that education can: promote orientation toward knowledge society; and boost all education stages including higher education.

## 7.3 Operations of Development

Literature (Abdalla, 2003; Badrawi, 2006) shows that quality has been established for evaluating institutional performance and accrediting academic programmes. The process started with setting academic standards for different disciplines within HEIs. Centres of quality have been established in universities with units of quality in each faculty for the dimensions of self-evaluation have also been established. Documents (QAAP, 2007) indicate that these structures are meant by the contact with academic departments to do programme specifications for their programmes and course specifications for their taught courses. Belal and Springuel (2007) add that similar departments have been joined together into academic committees and then linking them to committees of education sectors in the Supreme Council of Universities (SCUs). However, Abdalla (2005) argues that the laws of higher education need revision to assist in implementing the proposed development. Said (2008) agrees with Abdalla and argues that a weakness of the proposal implying in linking the evaluation of institutional performance to the work of committees. This is because the SCU is not independent of HEIs. I agree with Abdalla and Said that such body should be independent for the transparency of its operations and the neutrality of its decisions. Middlehurst (1997) argues that operations and decision of quality should be rational and based on evidences. I argue that evidence-based decision can add more trust and good reputation to the accreditation of the NAQAAE in Egypt.

Documents (QAAP, 2004a; QAAP, 2004b; QAAP, 2007) show that the idea of establishing quality in Egypt returns back to 2000, where the National Conference on Higher Education Reform was held to discuss higher education enhancement. Documents (HEEP, 2010) show that the conference initiated 25 projects which are to be implemented over 15 years. 12 projects out of the 25 were given priority. The Higher Education Enhancement Project

(HEEP) succeeded in obtaining loan from the World Bank (IBRD Loan No. 4658EGT) to fund the 12 projects, which were bundled into six projects and given priority in the first phase of the strategic plan 2002 – 2007. The documents of the project (National Conference on Higher Education, 2000) indicate that these six projects are: Faculties of Education Project (FOEP); Egyptian Technical Colleges Project (ETCP); Faculty-Leadership Development Project (FLDP); Information and Communication Technology Project (ICTP); Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP); and Higher Education Enhancement Project Fund (HEEPF).

Quality operates through Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP). QAAP supports HEIs through establishing Quality Assurance Centre (QAC) in each university and establishing Quality Assurance Unit (QAU) in each faculty. These internal structures for quality are meant by preparing HEIs to apply for accreditation from the NAQAAE which was established in 2006 upon presidential decree (People's Assembly, 2006). Documents (QAAP, 2007) indicate that QAAP operates to assure the quality of HEIs, with an aim of engaging them in an on-going improvement and efficient performance. Reviewing these documents reveals that QAAP aims at gaining the confidence of society in the abilities and efficiency of graduates. Documents (QAAP, 2008a) show that the main objective of QAAP is assuring and accrediting quality of HEIs.

Quality in Egypt performs monitoring, evaluation and accreditation. Documents (QAAP, 2008b) show that quality operates to monitor and assess whether internal quality structures and processes are in place prior to accrediting HEIs and programmes. However, Sliem (2006) argues that quality in Egypt is still in its transitional phase. He adds that the operations need to be more effective and academic standards of the programmes need to be put in place. My education experience in Egypt leads me to agree with Sliem. I argue that quality of the learning opportunities, research and other scholarly activities in Egypt need to be envisioned as an overall system combining a set of sub-systems. The country is experiencing political change since February 2011. However, quality has not been a culture in Egypt yet. This political transition towards democracy needs to view quality as a right of every citizen and not as a luxury. As a human right, quality needs to be engaged in every sector in the country (see section 1.2 of chapter one and see section 5.4 and section 5.8 of chapter five). Belal and

Springuel, (2007) assert this by concluding that there is lack of community involvement. They add that the effectiveness of quality management and enhancement still not clear and needs further development.

Quality in Egypt focuses on teaching. In terms of research quality, documents (QAAP, 2008a) show that quality operations review only the quantity of research. I argue that research is as important as teaching and its quality should be assessed like teaching. Kandeel *et al*. (2006) argue that the contribution to institutional mission and impact on the educational programme are among the factors characterising the quality of research. This lack is because quality in Egypt is mainly focused on teaching. However, accreditation is initially accorded to the institution as a first step prior to programme accreditation. At either level: institution or programme the quality of research should be assessed like assessing the quality of teaching. The assessment of the quality of research should consider the impact of research on the wider community. However, I consider that not all research disciplines are the same. For example, the impact of medicine on society may be wider than the impact of music due to the nature of specialisation. Most important, quality should be linked to funding HEIs as an important factor for accountability and also as an incentive for efficiency (see sections 5.5 and section 5.6 of chapter five).

Documents (QAAP, 2007) show that operations of quality in Egypt are characterised with certain dimensions. The methods of quality review include self-review followed by peer-review and external evaluation which provides an independent professional opinion on the assessment of student performance and the academic standards achieved on graduation. There are three major sources of data collection (required for accreditation's procedures) including: self-review report; site-visit; and surveys. These methods serve one major purpose represented in improvement. The outcomes include reports and follow-up procedures, where responsibility can lie with the NAQAAE or HEIs. HEIs are then engaged in preparing their action plans for further development (see section 5.3 of chapter five).

Documents (QAAP, 2008a) show that the approach of quality followed in Egypt is accreditation and evaluation at two levels: institution; and programme. The methods of accreditation vary to include self-review, peer review, and external evaluation. The data

required for accreditation process takes three forms which include: self-review report; site visit, and survey. The process is meant mainly by quality of teaching but for research the matter is mainly quantitative like the number of research published. The decision of accreditation is based on the report of the external evaluation process. The forms of accreditation decision vary to include entitling accreditation, postponing accreditation or deciding not to give accreditation. The results of the accreditation process are publicly declared. However, the outcomes have not been linked to funding yet (see section 5.8 of chapter five).

Quality in Egypt goes in voluntary cyclical operation. The interested higher education institution in accreditation from the NAQAAE should prepare its internal self-evaluation. This institution, then, submits its self-evaluation report to the NAQAAE to arrange for a site visit. Upon conducting the site visit, the results of the site visit report may be either one of two cases. The first case is deciding that the institution is ready to receive an accreditation visit. The second case is deciding that the institution is not ready for accreditation. With the second case, the institution receives a follow up visit from the NAQAAE to assist the institution to be ready to apply for accreditation later. But with the first case, the decision on accreditation takes one of three forms. The first form is to decide to give accreditation to the institution. The second form is to decide that the institution is accredited on condition that it satisfies the requirements of the NAQAAE. The third form is to decide that the institution needs to make further improvement to meet the requirements for accreditation. With the case of the first form, the accredited institution should be prepared for a re-accreditation in five years later. With the case of the second form, once accredited the institution prepares itself for re-accreditation in no later than five years. But with the case of the third form, the institution can apply later for accreditation when it is able to meet the requirements of the NAQAAE.

## 7.4 Levels of Development

Current operations in the development of quality in Egypt, illustrated through the example of Faculty of Education, Mansoura University have witnessed different types of development. The structure of the analysis is set out in relation to six themes covering:

individual level; programme level; department/faculty level; institutional level; national level; regional level; and the world level. The main source for providing the data of these levels is document analysis accompanied with semi-structured face-to-face interviews with four key Egyptian higher education experts all of them are from Mansoura University. Field visits were also conducted to collect data when required.

### 7.4.1 Individual Level

Higher education reform strategy in Egypt asserts the significance of professional and human development. Through Faculty Leadership Development Project (FLDP), academic staff in Mansoura University attend workshops and take part in training sessions. To reflect this, expert M was asked about the current operations followed in the development of academic staff. The answer was that *"The professional development for academic staff is important. It is done through specialised programmes in the faculty. Each academic staff has to attend four days per week and offers assistance for students in terms of academic preparation"*. The perspective of participants is consistent with Galal (2002) and Belal and Springuel (2007) who argue that the targeted development builds the capacity of academic staff and improves the quality of higher education outputs. Expert M explained that FLDP adopts and applies concepts and practices of self-development of human resource capacities within the University to improve the quality of University outputs (graduates). He adds that this development is directed to address challenges facing the University, and is consistent with higher education professional and ethical codes.

The broad landscape of academic staff is divided into five categories including demonstrators, assistant lecturers, lecturers, associate professors, and professors. The research interviews in Egypt indicated that the first two categories of this classification do not share in the processes of assuring and accrediting the quality of higher education. On the contrary, the last three categories participate as a response to the requirements of raising their salaries which are connected with their participation in quality projects. This was reflected by expert M who said that *"the Ministry of Higher Education started connecting the increase of salaries with the quality of performance for enhancing the learning process"*. The participants asserted that quality is an effective mechanism in enhancing higher education,

and that after obtaining national accreditation, there will be a need for HEIs to obtain the international accreditation. I noticed that the academic staff who work within the project of quality are more enthusiastic for succeeding the project and provided information more than those who are not working with it. The participants in the project of quality assure that they became more familiar with the main themes of quality. This means that there is a potential to expand participation and encourage effective cooperation among the academic staff on how they can cooperate with the project of quality. However, I realised that there are problems with the current operations of quality represented in the lack of experts. However, the answer of expert S reflects that the main problem quality in Egypt faces is the lack of systematisation and lack of experts specialised in quality by saying that *"the problems with the current operations is that higher education in Egypt depends on faculties and not on departments…..you will need to have capacity building because you are always in need for experts"*. This indicates a systematic problem represented in that universities are the bodies entitled to deal with the central management of the ministry regarding planning and finance, and that the academic departments are not represented in this communication.

The administrative and services staff in higher education are not included in the targeted group of professional development. This indicates a weakness point. I argue that involving administrative and service staff with the requirements of quality assists in advancing the responses to the targeted project. This demonstrates the potential for further development directed to address this point. Engaging the administrative and service staff in this process might encourage them to behave in a way that go in parallel with succeeding the operations of quality, particularly in the current phase of the project. Expert I envisages this perception by saying that *"Quality is the response to the needs of the market and its requirements"*.

### 7.4.2 Programme Level

My field visits to Faculty of Education, Mansoura University enabled me to observe that the main aims of the academic programme in the faculty is to reach continuous movement of self-institutional development. The interviewees clarified that academic programmes work in cooperation with the Quality Assurance Unit (QAU) in the faculty to fulfil procedures and requirements related to preparing the programme for accreditation from the NAQAAE.

Through field visits, I noticed that QAU assists the programme in obtaining accreditation. However, I realised a gap between the attentions given to teaching while neglecting research. I asked expert S about this gap. The reflection of Expert S was that *"The main focus is on teaching and learning…..because the focus of accreditation is on graduates, the focus is on teaching and learning"*. I observed also that there is a regulatory process for programme accreditation. When the programme is ready for accreditation, the faculty addresses the university and the university consult the Quality Assurance Centre (QAC) which examines the programme's application. For obtaining accreditation, the formal procedures are that the university addresses the Ministry of Higher Education and the ministry addresses the NAQAAE which began to operate its own procedures and requirements. These procedures indicate that QAU is a main element in preparing the programme within the faculty for obtaining accreditation.

However, I noticed a problem represented in the lack of experts specialised in quality. Because quality in Egypt is still under development, the regulations allow the faculty seeking accreditation to ask for guidance from other institutions particularly in areas of lack. I asked expert S about his perceptions in finding solutions to this problem. The answer was that *"you need to train faculty on how they can run programme or course specifications to have a training programme for external evaluators"*.

My field visits enabled me to observe that academic programmes seeking accreditation proceed in a serial of order. The first step is programme specifications followed by its course specifications. The next step is evaluating the teaching methods both the theoretical and the practical. The final step is to identify whether the programme attained the aims according to the predetermined criteria. The results emanated from operating these steps assist in deciding whether there is a need for further enhancement. I observed that what is being done for programmes is also done with courses. In spite of my observation, I asked expert A to confirm my observation. The answer was that *"according to specific criteria, the process of assuring and accrediting the quality of academic programmes is governed….. there are some criteria that are to be achieved and against which the quality of programmes is measured…..we start with academic standards, then academic programmes, then course specifications and*

*teaching this course and writing a report about it…..this is the quality within academic programme and courses"*.

The answer of participants is consistent with reports (Egypt, 2006a; 2006b) which show that Egyptian higher education quality reform policies have been developed to assure that the production of graduates conforms to recognised standards. In theory, I argue that the implementation of these policies will increase the skills of graduates and enhance their competitive capacity in the national, regional and international labour market. However, my education experience in Egypt leads me to consider that this conformance might not be attained in practice. This is because of the nature of knowledge and curriculum introduced in programmes of HEIs in Egypt. The knowledge and academic content of the taught programmes are not up to date. This means that there is gap between the up to date research and knowledge production and the knowledge of the academic content delivered to students in the programmes of higher education in Egypt. In addition, processes of teaching focus on memorisation and not on critical and creative thinking. I argue that directing the taught programmes to focus on creation and innovation is the main solution to create conformance between the skills of graduates and the requirements of the labour market.

### 7.4.3 Department/Faculty Level

The structure of quality in Egypt starts from the Quality Assurance Unit (QAU) in each faculty. Expert S was asked about the nature of this unit and its operations. The reflection was that *"there is a quality assurance unit in each faculty…..this unit works with all departments and all the files required for accreditation are in the unit"*. I proceeded to investigate the administration process of this structure. It has been indicated that this unit is located under the administration of the faculty. However, the unit receives the technical instructions from the Quality Assurance Centre (QAC) located in the University. I observed that the structure of QAU in Faculty of Education, Mansoura University consists of faculty dean, vice-dean, director of QAU, student representative union of the faculty and representatives from departments. Expert A was asked about the nature of this administration. The answer was that *"quality assurance units follow technically the quality assurance centre but administratively follow the deans of faculties".*

My field visits to Faculty of Education, Mansoura University reveal that the main purpose of QAU is to assist the faculty in fulfilling the requirements of accreditation. The answer of the interviewees indicates that while QAU is meant by the internal operations of quality in the faculty, QAC is meant by the external communication with the NAQAAE regarding the institutional and programme accreditation. Expert A reflects on this by saying that *"quality assurance units are meant by performing all procedures and requirements related to preparing faculties for obtaining accreditation from the national authority…..quality assurance centre is the main element in preparing faculties within the University for obtaining accreditation"*.

I observed the UK influence on quality in Egypt. Documents (QAAP, 2007) show that British consultants have been involved in establishing quality in Egypt. One of these consultants is Schofield whose guidance assisted in forming the activities of QAU. Schofield's contributions (2006) indicate that the activities of QAU include conducting workshops for academic staff on operations of quality.

The process of assuring and accrediting quality within departments/faculties is governed according to specific criteria. Before establishing the NAQAAE, assessment was performed according to comparison with other similar departments or faculties. But after establishing the NAQAAE there are some criteria that are to be achieved and against which the quality is measured. Expert A reported that QAC is the main governing body which provides criteria to academic departments by saying that *"quality assurance centre gives criteria to departments for making course specifications for achieving the stated benchmarks"*. I observed that the operation includes discussion between academic staff and students to identify what is being taught and how it is taught. This discussion reports on a range of topics including teaching methods, exams, facilities and identifying whether academic staff performed their roles properly, and whether exams measure the expected outcomes. Most important is to identify the gaps between what was planned before and what has been achieved and stating the reasons of the existing gaps. I asked expert S about the features of this operation and how it is processed. Expert S answered saying that *"the department has to submit to the unit several things like course specifications, programme specifications, plans*

*for development, the research that is done by the department and the community service that is done by the department"*.

I asked one of the experts what the department/faculty does to avoid common problems like the departure of academic staff. Expert M reported that in the case of individual academic staff who teaches subject or course left the department/faculty for certain reasons, there is a continuous course and academic content published on the University website which includes teaching modules. The site includes also knowledge and skills that the students should gain. After finishing the process of teaching specific course or programme, the teacher identifies what has been achieved and expresses his suggestions for improvement in the next academic year. In addition, at the end of every term students assess what they studied in a form of questionnaire. Each student must complete this form which reaches the teacher of the course via the department. According to the results of students' assessment, teacher modifies his course and plans for enhancing it. Every academic staff has his own page on the University website and he should identify what he is doing and what are his future plans. Through this page he should make clear what he intends to do in the next academic year. However, I noticed the absence of communication with other departments and faculties of other universities. I assume that this absence is because the lack of systematisation. The NAQAAE should create this 'systematic' understanding of quality nationally between departments and faculties across HEIs. The mechanism of quality in departments and the faculty are limited only to course and programme specifications without stating the need for communication with similar structures in other universities. This what Expert M confirms by saying that *"within the departments, there are course and programme specifications….and this is the mechanism for assuring quality of courses and programmes in the department"*.

### 7.4.4 Institutional Level

As a governmental university, Mansoura University has its own criteria and its quality is measured according to these criteria. Among the change the university experiences is the mechanism of delivering teaching and learning. Expert M was asked about the nature of this change. The answer was that *"in the current academic year, there is a plan to change curricula into electronic ones in order to facilitate delivering it to students via the University*

*website"*. The University also conducted (academic year 2009/2010) a number of workshops for specifying the form of the exam paper in terms of content and outline. The change included the laboratories and knowledge centres. In addition, the plan of change has been connected with the national agenda of education. Expert S reported that the University has a strategic plan which conforms to the national criteria for education by saying that *"we are now proceeding with institutional accreditation and programme accreditation"*. Expert A confirmed this change by saying that *"the University has a plan for enhancing it…..the University started to enhance teaching rooms into electronic rooms for assisting academic staff to deal with the mass number of students"*. Expert M summarises this change by saying that *"the laboratories and libraries in the faculties reached good level of advancement…..the faculties have strategic plans which conforms to the national criteria for education"*.

Mansoura University operates quality via its QAC which works in cooperation with QAUs for preparing faculties for accreditation from the NAQAAE. Expert I was asked whether the structure of QAC is only existed in Mansoura University or it is existed in each university. The answer was that *"all governmental universities started establishing QACs inside universities…..quality in education is represented in institutional capacity and educational effectiveness"*.

QAC is the main body meant by quality in Mansoura University. The documents (Egypt, 2009a) indicate that the systematic structure of the QAC in Mansoura University consists of the chancellor, vice-chancellor for teaching and learning, vice-chancellor for research, vice-chancellor for community service, director of QAC, two experts in quality, student guild representative of the University, head of businessmen society in Al-Dakahlia Governorate, the head of staffs' club, and one of the graduates. Expert I was asked about the structure of QAC in Mansoura University. The answer was that *"the quality assurance centre is a recognised structure inside the university, the content of its structure is quality assurance units"*. The perceptions of the interviewees reported that the most important role of the centre is to assist QAUs to qualify faculties in Mansoura University for obtaining accreditation from the NAQAAE. Expert I reported that *"the main role of these centres and units is to prepare and assist higher education institutions in obtaining accreditation from the National Authority for Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Education which was established in*

*2006…..the quality assurance centre in Mansoura University deals with the Ministry of Higher Education"*. The perspective of participants lead me to agree with Brown (2006) that it is advisable during the implementation of quality to conduct more workshops among the academic staff to increase their awareness of the importance of quality and its impact on the wider community.

### 7.4.5 National Level

Documents (Egypt, 2006c) show that quality started in Egypt as a result of one of the main projects of HEEP. The World Bank assisted the Government of Egypt with the required finance to establish the project. The establishment of quality in Egypt depended on experts in quality from the UK. This project started operating its processes across the institutional and national levels. Expert I was asked about how experts assisted in forming the academic references and the action plan of the project. The answer was that *"they began establishing academic references and strategic plan across the governmental universities"*.

The operations of quality required establishing QACs inside universities and establishing QAUs inside faculties. Helal (2008) the minister of higher education in Egypt points out that the main role of these centres and units is preparing and assisting HEIs for obtaining accreditation from the NAQAAE which was established in 2006. Expert I was asked about the legitimacy of these internal structures of quality. The answer was that *"on the ministerial scale, there are periodical meetings for QACs…..these are legitimate structures for assuring the quality of higher education in Egypt"*.

The NAQAAE established its own law for accrediting the different education sectors. Expert S reported that the Ministry of Higher Education formed a national committee to facilitate the work of quality. Expert S adds that *"this committee was responsible for putting the parameter for quality assurance and accreditation in higher education, and to work to establish a new law to initiate a national agency in Egypt"*. Although the NAQAAE is responsible about quality across the different education sectors, documents (Egypt, 2008a) show that every educational sector has its own policies and programmes. The NAQAAE is

now the only authority responsible for assuring and accrediting the quality of education in Egypt.

However, reviewing documents (Egypt, 2007c) indicates that the main focus of quality is on teaching and learning. The nature of quality in Egypt is based on students' learning. I argue that the importance given to teaching and learning should be the same importance given to research and community service. I noticed that the biggest attention is directed to teaching and learning and not to research. There is need to give an equal attention to research. I argue that this attention should be directed to address qualitative issues. For example, what are the features of research papers produced by academic staff? Where were they published? What is the evidence validating research plan? What kind of research is done? Is there enough funding? Research should be important as teaching and learning because it is about producing new knowledge. El-Sawah (2008) realised this gap and argues that it is advisable during the implementation phase of quality in Egypt to continue conducting developmental engagements visits to faculties which have not completed their research projects. The findings of his study conclude that there is a gap between the focus on teaching and research.

Because the focus of accreditation is on graduates, the focus of the NAQAAE is on teaching and learning. Expert S was asked for perception about this gap. The answer was that *"this is one of the Egyptian problems particularly in education that has a lot of students, but with the National Authority for Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Education, the situation is different…..we are now speaking about course specification, programme specifications and the different skills required to be gained by graduates like transferable skills, intellectual skills and there is a new terminology that has been introduced in teaching and learning like e-learning, e-courses, and e-library"*.

Although the Egyptian experience of quality started in 2006, some progress in terms of capacity building and effectiveness appears to have been made. Documents (NAQAAE, 2011) show that the NAQAAE has accredited some faculties such as: Faculty of Medicine, Suez Canal University; Faculty of Nursing, Alexandria University; Faculty of Pharmacy, Cairo University; Faculty of Science, Assiut University; Faculty of Engineering, Assiut University; and Faculty of Pharmacy, Mansoura University.

### 7.4.6 Regional Level

Egypt belongs to the Arab region. The Arab region started its own network for quality in 2007 known as the Arab Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ANQAHE). The NAQAAE started connection with the ANQAHE through joint programmes with some Arab countries. Expert S reported that *"the Egyptian quality assurance authority has joint programmes to work together with other national agencies in some different countries"*. This explains that quality is capable for change. This perception has been reported by expert I who said that *"quality assurance is not static but dynamic and capable for change according to circumstances"*.

In Egypt, offering qualified graduates is one of the parameters for HEIs to obtain accreditation. Although the NAQAAE has been established, a lot still required as quality in Egypt is still under development. Documents (Egypt, 2007b) indicate that quality has been established in cooperation with experience from other countries particularly the UK. However, the quality assurance authority still has a lot of development to do. The NAQAAE has joint programmes that work together with other national agencies in some different countries particularly in the Arab region. Expert S was asked whether internationalisation is an aim of the NAQAAE. The answer was that *"the main aim of the NAQAAE is to conform to the national guidelines, and there is a need for internationalisation"*.

### 7.4.7 The world Level

Experts were asked about the desirability and feasibility of establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality (see section 1.5 of chapter one and section 2.8 of chapter two and section 5.2 of chapter five and section 6.4.7 of chapter six and see chapter nine). Expert S said that *"we started working with a lot of international organisations to find a way which can enhance higher education in Egypt. I think the UNESCO is working at this point and they have a lot of work and projects. An international organisation for quality assurance and accreditation in higher education is acceptable now. An agency for*

*international quality assurance and accreditation in higher education is expected to establish its own criteria and entity"*. The answer of expert I was that *"this is acceptable. But for dealing with international organisation, there is need for international coordination and all countries are in need to share this. I do not mind the idea of establishing a United Nations Organisation for International Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Higher Education. I am supporting the idea for administering and operating quality assurance and accreditation in higher education across the globe. There is still general similarity between all countries. The international impression is stronger than national impression"*. Expert A from Egypt answered that *"there is no international accreditation until now…..all types of accreditation are local via national agencies for quality assurance and accreditation in higher education or via other agencies in other countries. What is existed now is network for quality assurance agencies in higher education represented in the INQAAHE. There is common interest and common language which facilitate adopting specified group of global criteria"*. Expert M answered that *"I thank you for this idea. I think this is acceptable idea. I agree with you. It is better for the suggested organisation to be followed to the United Nations rather than to be followed to any other organisation"*.

The answers of experts guide me to envision that the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can be the world systematisation of quality combining set of sub-systems. There can be sub-international organisations established and emanated from the mother organisation (the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality). These sub-systems can be established across regions and countries as connections between the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality and countries. This assists in addressing any arising problems which might appear. Any arising issues can be transferred to sub-organisations which by their role raise them to the main international organisation (the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality).

However, I consider that benefits of establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality have to be made clear to encourage countries and their HEIs to accept the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. This requires establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the United Nations because the UN is recognised structure and already established for adding

more credibility and authenticity to the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. Chapter ten of the thesis reveals that the United Nations is the best structure to include the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. Investigation in chapter ten across its sections denotes that the United Nations is adequate to include the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality to govern and systematise systematisation of quality in the world, and to provide the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe. I consider that there are changes required to be done. When soft creation of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to be turned to hard creation, HEIs have to proceed with further changes. This is because the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to implement world criteria, and that HEIs across the globe will have to meet these criteria. Other duties and functions towards the world are to be implemented requiring HEIs to exceed their responsibilities from the national and/or regional levels to the world level.

I consider that the global responsibility of HEIs is difficult concept to deal with. Addressing what the globe faces (like climate change) is big challenge. This means that systematising international research agenda makes HEIs be able to systematise their operations and priorities. I argue that creating international agenda assists HEIs to adopt global responsibilities. Creating and systematising the international agenda of HEIs is to be one of the responsibilities of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. I argue that it is better for this creation to be ordered, as illuminated by the answer of expert H. First is to turn soft creation of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality to hard creation. Second is to create international agenda. Third is to guide HEIs across the globe in meeting this agenda. Fourth is to monitor and assess the ways HEIs behave to meet this international agenda. Fifth is to provide the international accreditation to HEIs which succeeded in meeting the requirements of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality.

## 7.5 Summary of Chapter Seven

The analysis and discussion on the levels of development in this chapter were directed to address certain issues and concerns currently existing in the operations of quality in Egypt. This chapter presents the main features, issues and operations of quality in Egypt. It offers corrective actions to address the weaknesses. This chapter presents the importance of systematic vision in the operations of quality. I argue that the targeted development is implied in systematisation. Quality of Egypt lacks systematisation and has the potential to be envisioned as an overall system combining set of sub-systems for assuring and accrediting the quality of higher education.

The seventh theme forms crucial dimension in reaching the conclusion whether there is readiness for establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. The most significant data in this chapter was that gathered from document analysis and through interviews with principal academic staff from Mansoura University in Egypt. The perception of the research interviewees and their interpretations point to implications presented in chapter eleven and chapter twelve and presented also in phase two of the research (systems design – chapters 13 - 14).

The systematic structure of the thesis starts from the whole and moves to the part before returning back to the whole. The thesis starts its first phase with chapter two which investigated the related literature in a unique systematic method which presents quality a whole. The thesis, then, moved via chapters six and seven to address the part through investigating, in depth and detail, current operations in the development of quality in the UK and Egypt. The thesis, therefore, returns back to the whole via the next chapters (eight, nine and ten) which investigate quality of regions and of the world and then the United Nations.

# Chapter Eight

# Quality of Regions

## 8.1 Introduction

This chapter is the culmination of the thesis development. The thesis started from the whole in chapter two and then moved to the part in chapters six and seven (quality of the UK and Egypt) and now the thesis, via this chapter, returns back to the whole. This chapter addresses regional operations in quality. An explicit analysis follows.

## 8.2 Regional Operations in Quality

The regional operations in quality indicate that there are many forms of development at which quality is currently conducted. Over the past few years, many groups of agencies of quality have formed networks on the basis of geographical regions and/or other agency characteristics (such as agencies in small states or agencies for professional accreditation). This form of cooperation created into existence regional networks for quality. The policies and practices of such networks are bounded by the membership of each network. Reviewing the website of these regional networks (see Appendix C) leads me to argue that these regional networks assist HEIs around certain region for meeting and addressing its regional priorities and needs. An example of this is the European Higher Education Area (see the next section). An explicit analysis of some regional networks follows.

### 8.2.1 European Operations

Reviewing the website (www.enqa.eu) of the European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQAHE) indicates that the ENQAAHE was established in 2000 to promote European co-operation in the field of quality assurance. In November 2004 the General Assembly transformed the Network into the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education. The idea for the association originates from the European Pilot Project for Evaluating Quality in Higher Education (1994-95) which indicated the need

for sharing and developing experience in the area of quality assurance. Subsequently, the idea was given momentum on the European mutual recognition of higher education qualifications (1998) and by the Bologna Declaration of 1999.

Ginkel (2007) points out that the European countries committed themselves to establish the European Higher Education Area (EHEA). This reveals the European co-operation in the field of quality through developing comparable criteria and methodologies. Michavila and Zamorano (2007) point out that the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education assists the European countries in establishing a common framework of reference for quality assurance which directly worked in the establishment of the EHEA in 2010. However, they recommend that the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education should contribute more to the European quality assurance process. I argue that this contribution can be achieved through 'systematic' understanding of quality. I mean operating quality in the European region as an overall system combining a set of sub-systems for assuring and accrediting the quality of higher education. In this 'systematic' understanding of quality, the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education is the overall system and each national agency of quality is a sub-system. This can create adequate peer review system for European agencies of quality and can develop agreed European standards, procedures and guidelines on quality.

An aspect of the European operations is the Bologna Process representing the main mechanism for creating the European Higher Education Area EHEA and is based on cooperation between ministries, HEIs, students and staff from the 46 countries, with the participation of international organisations. Ginkel *et al*. (2007) point out that the overarching aim of the Bologna Process is to create EHEA that is based on international cooperation and academic exchange that is attractive to European students and staff as well as to students and staff from other parts of the world. They add that Bologna Process seek to develop EHEA based on institutional autonomy, academic freedom, equal opportunities and democratic principles that facilitate mobility, increase employability and strengthen Europe's attractiveness and competitiveness (see section 6.4.6 of chapter six). They argue expecting that EHEA can: facilitate mobility of students, graduates and higher education staff; prepare students for their future careers and for life as active citizens in democratic societies and

support their personal development; and offer broad access to high-quality higher education based on democratic principles and academic freedom.

Another aspect of the European operations in quality is that the European Consortium for Accreditation (ECA). Heusser (2008) points out that the ECA was established in Córdoba in November 2003 and renewed in Kraków in June 2008. The members of ECA believe that mutual recognition of accreditation decisions can contribute to the recognition of qualifications and the mobility of students in Europe. Heusser expects that the ECA can make life easier for HEIs and their programmes operating across borders. He argues that there is a need for better mutual recognition agreements, where HEIs only need to apply for accreditation in one of the ECA member countries instead of obtaining accreditation in each country separately. This means that by undertaking the necessary activities for mutual recognition, ECA contributes to the EHEA. I argue that the ECA can work to provide transparent information on quality and to support the internationalisation of institutions and students. In addition, the organisations in ECA can share best experience and promote best practices in accreditation. Achieving this enables the participating agencies to accept the results and/or decisions of other ECA members as equivalent to their own.

Reviewing the website of the ECA (www.ecaconsortium.net) reveals that the ECA aims for the mutual recognition of accreditation and quality assurance decisions. The members of ECA believe that the ECA can contribute to the recognition of qualifications in higher education and the mobility of students and graduates in Europe. This means that the ECA can be enhanced to prevent the necessity of multiple accreditations for joint programmes and institutions operating across borders. I argue that the ECA can be functioned for: mutual learning; disseminating best practices in accreditation; providing transparent information on quality; and supporting the internationalisation of HEIs and theirs students.

It is argued (Beccari and Rauret, 2008; Beccari and Remaud, 2008; Cox and Malfroy, 2008, Frederiks: 2008; Harris and Sauri, 2008; Hijden, 2008; Vaht, 2008; Woodhouse, 2008) that mutual recognition of accreditation and quality assurance decisions can substantially reduce existing barriers in the recognition of qualifications and thereby enhance academic and professional mobility in Europe. This is because mutual recognition of quality assurance and

accreditation decisions would prevent that joint programmes and joint degrees need to be accredited in each of the participating countries. The ECA, therefore, has been established as a road map towards mutual recognition. I argue that the establishment of the ECA encompasses different dimensions including: mutual understanding of agencies of quality assurance and accreditation; mutual recognition of quality assurance and accreditation procedures; and mutual recognition of quality assurance and accreditation results and/or decisions; facilitating the work of recognition agencies; enhancing joint programmes and degrees; validate the work of agencies; and mapping the diversity of the European higher education.

The final aspect of the European operations in quality is Qrossroads. Reviewing the website of Qrossroads (www.qrossroads.eu) reveals that the phrase of Qrossroads is used in the European region for exchanging information about quality among the region members. This phrase presents information regarding assuring and accrediting the quality of higher education in Europe. The information on Qrossroads is provided by agencies of quality, and specifically concerning qualifications from HEIs which are quality assured and their programmes are accredited. Qrossroads brings together information from different databases of agencies of quality. However, I noticed that each of these agencies is responsible for the administration of their own database.

Aerden (2008) points out that the main aim of Qrossroads is to present the qualifications awarded by HEIs and their programmes that are quality assured and accredited. These qualifications are presented in perspective of higher education together with information on the relevant accreditation organisation and recognition authorities. This indicates that Qrossroads operates as clearinghouse in the European region for issues related to quality. The investigation reveals that it is only the European region which uses this term.

### 8.2.2 Other Regional Operations

One of regional operations in quality is the Arab Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ANQAHE). Reviewing the website (www.anqahe.org) of the Arab Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ANQAHE) indicates that the ANQAHE was established in June 2007 as a non-profit nongovernmental organisation. The purpose of the

ANQAHE is to create a mechanism between the Arab countries to exchange information about quality assurance in the region. Documents (ANQAHE, 2007) show that the mission of the ANQAHE is to ensure and strengthen quality in the Arab region and to enhance the cooperation between agencies of quality in the Arab region. The aims of the ANQAHE are to support national agencies of quality in the Arab region. These documents reveal that the ANQAHE transformed these broad aims into operational objectives to disseminate good practice of quality in the Arab region. Babiker (2007) and Lopez-Segrera *et al*. (2007) explain that in the Arab countries, four countries practise both institutional and programmatic accreditation dealing with the quality of HEIs and the validity of their educational programmes. One case operates only institutional accreditation and ten are in the process of introducing operations for quality. Nevertheless, most of the existing national frameworks lack the basic conditions of an effective quality. Although they have written statements and set of objectives, there is still no systematic approach to achieve their objectives, or a clear policy to translate the mission statement of their quality into systematic actions.

Another network is the Caribbean Area Network for Quality Assurance in Tertiary Education (CANQATE). The genesis of the CANQATE was at an INQAAHE workshop held in Montego Bay in May 2002. Reviewing the website (www.canqate.org) of CANQATE indicates that the aim of the network is to promote and assist in the implementation of good practices in quality assurance in tertiary education. Sobrinho (2007) points out that in November 2004, members of the CANQATE agreed to work to maintain quality of tertiary education in the region. He adds that the members work together to increase the mutual recognition of qualifications to facilitate the movement of students and graduates within the region. I argue that the dissemination of information on quality makes potential students aware of the need to accreditation status as appropriate of the institution or programme which they are interested to enrol. In Caribbean region, Sobrinho (2007) points out that fourteen countries practise both institutional and programmatic accreditation, four countries conduct only institutional accreditation, and only one carry out programmatic mechanism alone. Eight countries are in process to produce operations for quality, and two countries have quality assessment. He adds that several factors in the region have created serious challenges for quality. These challenges include: huge expansion of enrolment; reduction in state budgets for higher education; and emergence of private sector and different models in higher

education. In response, national agencies for quality have been established in Argentina, Central American Countries, Colombia, Mexico, Chile and many other countries of the region. These countries practise both institutional and programmatic accreditation. Lopez-Segrera *et al*. (2007) indicate that one of the main objectives of creating these agencies has been to ensure and accredit quality due to enormous growth of public and private higher education. However, they argue that many institutions and programmes remain of low quality in these countries.

Another regional example is Asia-Pacific Quality Network (APQN) which covers all Pacific island nations and territories excluding Gulf States. Documents (APQN, 2008) show that the mission of the APQN is to enhance the quality of higher education in Asia and the Pacific region through strengthening the work of quality assurance agencies and extending the cooperation between them. The aim of APQN is to promote good practice in the maintenance and improvement of quality in higher education in Asia-Pacific region. Cheung (2008) argues that the aims of APQN can permit better-informed recognition of qualifications throughout the region. He adds that through the development and use of credit transfer schemes, the mobility of students between institutions both within and across national borders can be enhanced. In Asia-Pacific Stella (2007) points out that seven countries practise both institutional and programmatic quality, one has institutional accreditation, one is in process to introduce operations for quality, and one uses unofficial accreditation. In Asia-Pacific, Lopez-Segrera *et al*. (2007) explain that nine countries are in the process of introducing operations for quality. Six countries practise institutional and programmatic accreditation and one practise programmatic accreditation. In South and South West Asia, two countries practise both institutional and programmatic quality, two are in process of producing new operations for quality, and two countries have quality assessment mechanisms.

## 8.3 Summary of Chapter Eight

This was the first chapter of the thesis returning back to the whole. The chapter presented quality of regions. Most important was the European operations of quality as the most

advanced network of quality in the world. As a completion to the thesis returning back to the whole, the next chapter presents quality of the world.

# Chapter Nine

# International Quality and Accreditation of Higher Education

## 9.1 Introduction

This chapter presents international quality and accreditation of higher education the world. The chapter is culmination of the thesis development. The thesis started from the whole in chapter two (literature review) and then moved to the part in chapters six and seven (quality of the UK and Egypt) and now the thesis, via this chapter, returns back to the whole. This chapter addresses quality of the world by investigating international operations in quality.

The first phase of systems analysis within this research interrogates quality of higher education in the world. I do so through investigating the nature of the evidence that current operations of quality are, or are not, adequate for systematisation. I found that there is a need to create and operate a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. While I did this I revealed the strengths of arguments that the characteristics of the UN and UNESCO can assist in creating and operating a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality (see section 2.8 of chapter two and section 6.4.7 of chapter six and section 7.4.7 of chapter seven).

The analytical approach of this chapter interrogates systematisation of quality of higher education in the world to enable me to create theories about new systems, new theoretical generalisations and new applications. This makes quality more systematic through envisaging, assessing and theorising the establishment of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for providing the international accreditation to higher education institutions across the globe. This ontological stance underpins this analysis assuming as Ritchie and Lewis (2003), Crotty (2003) and Ritchie and Lewis, (2003) argue that such an orientation tends to place emphasis and value on human understanding, interpretive aspects of knowing about social world and the significance of the investigator's own interpretations and understandings of the phenomenon being studied. This subjectivist epistemology underpins generally the national, regional and international operations of

quality, and underpins particularly in more detail via seven levels of analysis the operations of quality generated from the research fieldwork interviews in the UK and Egypt in the UK and Egypt (see chapters six and seven) in order to strengthen the validity and reliability of the wider research generated. I did so to enable partners and beneficiaries to understand the meaning of terms related to quality as they are used in this thesis (see section 5.2 of chapter five). An explicit analysis follows.

## 9.2 International Operations in Quality

Quality is important particularly with the increase in the social demand for higher education. This is because higher education is meant by preparing individuals to get better knowledge and skills, and therefore better work, for a better life. The structure of the social demand for higher education has also changed among the student population requiring different types of HEIs. The student population of higher education became more diversified ever than before. In addition to conventional successful completers of secondary education from the relevant age group, Sanyal and Martin (2007) argue that the demand for higher education created new forms of students. The change in forms of students is accompanied, as Nayyar (2008) argues, with change in the forms of HEIs. This change created the rationale for Quality. With such international phenomena, Quality assists HEIs to build strategic alliances with each other and with related agencies to face challenges posed by emerging for-profit commercial higher education providers which are vulnerable to corruption. With this change in the international context of higher education, Quality is essential for ensuring that quality of HEIs and their programmes is recognised. Therefore, agencies of Quality and the international higher education community must ensure that HEIs are carefully evaluated and that the results of assessment are easily available to the public and the international beneficiaries. This requires from governmental, regional, and international agencies to coordinate their efforts and involve in maintaining standards and protecting higher education sector. I argue that this coordination can be through systematisation of Quality in the world.

Although this global scene created the rationale for Quality, it raises issues about HEIs' quality. For example, how can students know that what they are getting is worth the time and money they have invested? How can governments check whether the money they provide is

being used for a valuable purpose and whether HEIs are working for the public interest? How can employers in business and industry know that what they see on certificates is what they get in terms of knowledge and skills? How can HEIs know whether they are keeping their edge in terms of quality in the increasingly competitive world of higher education? These issues have generated a growing concern worldwide regarding the potential to assure and accredit quality of higher education not only nationally and regionally but also internationally, and there are a number of strategies - including agreements, networks, organisations, initiatives, calls and polls – which aim to provide this level of assurance as detailed in the following sections.

### 9.2.1 International Agreements

Among the international agreements of Quality is the International Engineering Alliance including six agreements for mutual recognition of engineering qualifications and professional competence (washingtonaccord.org). These agreements include Washington Accord, Sydney Accord, Dublin Accord, Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation, Engineers Mobility Forum, and Engineering Technologist Mobility Forum. In spite of the rare literature on these agreements, I argue that these agreements support my analysis in chapter three and four that not all disciplines have the same strategic importance. Because of the impact of engineering on economy and life of people, several countries conducted such agreements.

Reviewing the website (www.washingtonaccord.org) reveals that the participants agreed to recommend an International Register of Engineering Technologists. This recommendation is intended to provide framework for the recognition of experienced practising engineering technologists by the responsible bodies in each of the signatory economies. In particular, such agreements represent benchmark for mutual recognition by engineering technologists to licensing, registration or certification in economies other than that in which they first gained recognition. Most important is that these agreements exist only in the high ranking world. The review reveals no evidence that similar agreements are existed in the low ranking world. This means that the quality of engineering and technological education in low ranking countries does not qualify these countries to be members in these agreements. This conclusion leads me to argue that there is a gap between quality of higher education in the high ranking and low ranking countries. In addition, I argue that although these agreements

are belonging to the high ranking world, they lack systematisation. I noticed the absence of the systematic character and structure and the absence of the systematic consistency between these agreements. These operations would be enhanced if there was an umbrella system which coordinated the operations between these agreements instead of being separated agreements. This means that each of these agreements could be a sub-system of the overall international system combining these agreements. What rationalises and facilitates creating this overall system to comprise these agreements as sub-systems is that these agreements are all in disciplines related to engineering and technology.

### 9.2.2 International Networks

The most famous international network for Quality is the International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE). The INQAAHE was established in 1991 with 8 members. Today the total membership is more than 200. Reviewing the website (www.inqaahe.org) of the INQAAHE indicates that the main purpose of this network is to collect and disseminate information on current and developing theory and practice in the assessment and maintenance of quality in higher education. Documents (INQAAHE, 2008a; 2008b; 2008c) show that the INQAAHE mission is to enable agencies of Quality to share information and experiences, and to lead theoretical and practical foundations of the profession.

INQAAHE is active in the theory and practice of quality assurance in higher education. The great majority of its members are agencies of Quality that operate in many different ways. However, the INQAAHE welcomes organisations that have interest in quality assurance in higher education. Uvalic-Trumbic (2007) argues that the INQAAHE offers its members the many benefits of being part of such an active group of workers in Quality. I agree with Uvalic-Trumbic as I noticed that the INQAAHE offers members a Journal and newsletter, a query service and events. This means that the INQAAHE has an active role in sharing good practice among agencies of Quality. Through this role, the INQAAHE provides support to the member agencies on knowledge and understanding of the practice of Quality.

Reviewing the documents (INQAAHE, 2008c) indicates that there are key values that underpin the policy and practice of the INQAAHE. Fundamental to its work is the explicit

recognition of the diversity contained within the community of agencies of Quality. I argue that what facilitates the work of the INQAAHE is that higher education is distinguished from other types of education in that it is capable for internationalisation. However, I consider that the policy and practice of Quality should be fit for purpose (in addition to the fitness of purpose itself) in each particular context. I noticed that the INQAAHE values this diversity. There is no single INQAAHE recommended model for external quality assurance. However, I argue that the practices of Quality in the different countries share some commons (see chapter four). This means that there can be commonalities and fundamental principles that underpin the best practice in Quality worldwide. I observed that the operations of INQAAHE give peculiar consideration to the primacy of academic freedom. This leads me to argue that Quality (for example in the UK) promotes academic freedom and intellectual and institutional integrity (see section 6.3 of chapter six). I noticed that the work of INQAAHE is based on fundamental premise that quality is primarily the responsibility of HEIs themselves. This means that the INQAAHE recognises that external quality arrangements should respect institutional integrity, and that all agencies of quality should ensure the independence and validity of their approaches and their methods.

### 9.2.3 International Organisations

There are organisations, based on national location, accept to conduct its external review and applying its own procedures (based on a desire from the applicant) for HEIs or/and academic programmes located in other countries. The successful applicant obtains the recognition of these organisations. Sanyal and Martin (2007) point out that the International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) is a worldwide federation of national standards bodies responsible for creating standards for each country. Reviewing the website (www.iso.org) of ISO indicates that the ISO initially started accrediting enterprises, but now covers educational institutions as well. ISO is the world's largest developer and publisher of international standards. It is a network of the national standards institutes of 159 countries (one member per country, with central secretariat in Geneva, Switzerland). The ISO is a non-governmental organisation that forms a bridge between the public and private sectors. Many of its member institutes are part of the governmental structure of their countries or are mandated by their government. Some other members have their roots uniquely in the private sector, having been set up by national partnerships of industry associations. The ISO, therefore, enables a

consensus to be reached on solutions that meet both the requirements of business and the broader needs of society.

In addition to ISO, there are national accreditation agencies which accept to accredit the quality of HEIs in foreign countries provided that these applicant institutions must fulfil its procedures and requirements. One of these agencies is the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA), in the USA, accrediting HEIs in more than 31 countries outside the USA (www.chea.org). Other bodies offer such services in the areas of engineering and technology. The Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology (ABET), established in 1932 and located in the USA, offers also such theses services in areas of engineering and technology (www.abet.org).

### 9.2.4 International Initiatives

The most famous international initiative in Quality is the Global Initiative for Quality Assurance Capacity (GIQAC) by a partnership between the UNESCO and the World Bank. Reviewing the websites (www.unesco.org; www.worldbank.org) reveals that the main aim of this initiative is to support capacity building in quality assurance of higher education in low ranking countries and in countries which are in transition phase. A formal agreement has been signed between the World Bank and UNESCO as overall framework for financing and implementation. It was agreed that this initiative would aim to consolidate a set of World Bank grants to establish a global support mechanism for regional networks of Quality. Through these grants the World Bank has supported existing regional networks in Quality in Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean.

Documents (GIQAC, 2008a) show that the GIQAC opens support opportunities to other regional networks for quality assurance in Europe, Central Asia and the Arab States regions. The GIQAC, therefore, provides each region the opportunity to access resources. The UNESCO, as the only UN organisation with an explicit mandate in higher education, is linked with partners in 194 countries placing it in a position to achieve its mission to provide leadership, standard setting, and capacity building in higher education. This means that the GIQAC can build on the UNESCO's Global Forum on International Quality Assurance, Accreditation and Recognition of Qualifications in 2002, 2004 and 2007, and the

UNESCO/OECD Guidelines for Quality Provision in Cross-border Higher Education. These documents reveal that the main aim of the GIQAC is to build capacity to engender quality assurance practices in low ranking countries and territories as well as countries in transition by supporting training and knowledge-sharing activities. Such activities are proposed and undertaken by autonomous regional and international non-profit networks of quality assurance professionals and institutions. Documents (GIQAC, 2008a; 2008b) show that activities of the GIQAC include development of international clearinghouses of information on quality assurance practices in multiple languages including the publication, storage, and dissemination of up-to-date information.

### 9.2.5 International Calls

There are many calls adopted by international organisations (including the IAU, OECD, the World Bank, the INQAAHE and UNESCO for internationalising quality. An instance of this is the international initiative by INQAAHE calling the need for developing formal qualifications for those who work in the field of quality. Documents (INQAAHE, 2008b) reveal that the INQAAHE has appointed about 16 professionals from around the world to write course material for providing qualifications in quality.

However, literature (IAU, 2001; 2005; 2008a; 2008b; Lenn, 2004; 2008; Dodds, 2005; Bassett, 2006; Johansson, 2007; Mundy, 2007; INQAAHE, 2008c) reveals that there are challenges facing HEIs. Some of these challenges include the need for coping in an age of change. In this context, the OECD (2005) has elaborated guidelines on quality provision in cross-border higher education. These guidelines aim to serve as educational response to the growing commercialisation of higher education. They also seek to address key issues in higher education, and propose tools and synthesis of good practices that can assist member states in assessing the quality of higher education provided across borders to protect students from low-quality higher education provision. Meanwhile the UNESCO held three forums (UNESCO, 2002; 2004; 2007) for international quality assurance, accreditation and the recognition of qualifications in 2002, 2004, and 2007 which asserted that quality assurance is the review of educational programmes to ensure that acceptable standards of education, scholarship and infrastructure are being maintained. These forums are directed to promote

capacity-building in Quality. However, the current global context reveals that Quality lacks systematisation.

### 9.2.6 International Poll

The Delphi poll of the Global University Network for Innovation (GUNI) demonstrates the international opinion (GUNI, 2007) on the potential for an international system for systematisation of quality. This international poll reveals that: 42 per cent of the experts polled around the world consider Quality necessary; 46.4 per cent find it is necessary to internationalising Quality; and 11.6 per cent find it unnecessary. The regional breakdown of the results is quite interesting. In Africa, 58.3 per cent of the experts favoured the internationalisation of Quality; 45.5 per cent of experts from Latin America favoured it; 44.8 per cent from Europe favoured it; and 42. 9 per cent from Asia-Pacific favoured it. This was followed by the USA and Canada with 33.3 per cent. The percentage of those rejecting the internationalisation of Quality varies from 18.2 per cent of respondents from Latin America and the Caribbean to 6.9 per cent of those from Europe. It is striking that respondents who accept the internationalisation of Quality come from Europe, where models of higher education are quite varied. Even most experts from the Arab States (71.4 per cent) would like to have the internationalisation of Quality if there are suitable procedures. This leads me to conclude that, as in many other areas of higher education, in quality assurance and accreditation there is potential to create global system (acting in addition to, and not alternative for the national and regional practices) for systematisation of quality.

## 9.3 Summary of Chapter Nine

Most important in this chapter is the presentation of the international operations of quality. The thesis now is ready to investigate the adequacy of the UN to include new organisation meant by systematisation of quality which is investigated in the next chapter.

# Chapter Ten

# The United Nations

## 10.1 Introduction

Chapter eight was presentation of regional operations in quality. Chapter nine investigated the world operations in quality. This chapter examines the character and structure of the UN. The investigation of this chapter suggests that the UN and UNESCO have the adequacy to assist in establishing systematisation of quality by including new organisation called the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the structure of the UN for providing the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe. This chapter examines the character and structure of the UN and UNESCO so as to decide whether the UN and UNESCO are, or are not, adequate to assist in systematising systematisation of quality through including new organisation for the 'systematic' understanding of quality. An explicit analysis follows.

## 10.2 Overview

The idea of a new world peace organisation emanated from, and was incorporated in, the World War II. Documents (United Nations, 2000; 2002a; 2002b; 2007) show that public discussion, discrete planning and diplomatic exchanges performed the crucial role in drafting the Charter of the UN organisation and its adoption by the 50 founding member states at the San Francisco Conference in 1945, where the UN set up its apparatus and began to apply the Charter and to operate the functions conferred upon it up to our present day. Konigswinter and Wilhelm (1994) point out that the genesis of the UN Charter returns to the raising question regarding the post-war situation and how to prevent new wars. As a result, the UN constitution was conceived, negotiated, drafted, signed, and ratified in different phases starting in December 1941, and was terminated by the diplomatic preparatory conference held during the summer of 1944 at Dumbarton Oaks, USA. Following this conference, the Yalta Conference of February 1945 initiated and created intense diplomatic exchanges

between the capital of the three principal allies including London, Washington and Moscow. Then, the opening of the San Francisco Founding Conference on the 25th of April 1945 created the way towards the signing of the UN Charter on the 26th of June 1945.

## 10.3 Character

The following sections examine the character of the UN organisation. An explicit analysis follows.

### 10.3.1 Preamble

The main legal reference guide illuminating any decision or/and action conducted by the UN organisation or its member states is the preamble of the UN Charter. Simma (1994) points out that the preamble of the UN organisation asserts that governments of the member states and their people must save no efforts to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war which brought untold sorrow to mankind. It reaffirms faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations. This means that the preamble of the UN promotes social progress and larger freedom for better standards of life. However, I argue that national states need to combine efforts and powers together in good and due form to accomplish agreed global aims. Perhaps systematising systematisation of quality might be one of the global aims targeted by many national governments (see section 5.6 and section 5.8 of chapter five). This can employ a world systematisation of quality (the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality) for the promotion of the educational, economic and social advancement of all peoples in all countries across the globe.

### 10.3.2 Aims

The effectiveness of the UN organisation could be illustrated adequately by identifying its aims which guide its actions and these of its member states. Winton (1972) points out that the UN organisation operates to maintain international peace and security, and to that end: to

take effective collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to the peace. He adds that the UN supervises acts of aggression or for other breaches of peace. He argues that the UN does so by peaceful means and in conformity with the principles of justice and international law. Salzburg (1994) identifies that the UN organisation act to be a centre for harmonising the actions of nations in the attainment of global common ends. He argues that the UN develops friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of people, and to take other appropriate measures to strengthen universal peace. This means that the UN can create international co-operation for solving international problems of an educational, economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character, and for promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion.

### 10.3.3 Principles

White (2002) points out that the UN organisation governs and leads the work of its operations through a group of principles. He argues that these principles guarantee transparency and objectivity of the operations of the UN. The principles of the UN organisation are:

- Sovereign equality of all member states;
- Fulfilling the assumed obligations in accordance with the UN Charter;
- Settling disputes via peaceful means in such a manner that international peace, security and justice are not endangered;
- Creating international relations refrained from the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any state, or in any other manner inconsistent with the UN organisation;
- Ensuring that the act of the non-member states of the UN in accordance with the UN organisation for the maintenance of international peace and security; and
- Nothing contained in the Charter shall authorise the UN organisation to intervene in matters which are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any state.

### 10.3.4 Values

The UN organisation adopts certain values marking the relations between and within the international community. These values provide the aims to which the UN aspires and the benchmarks against which the success of the organisation can be measured. Although the UN operates according to core values since its establishment in 1945, documents (United Nations, 2009) show that many new and required international values have been added and adopted as a result of emerging global challenges over the past decades. Such emergence reflects real and crucial readiness to share hands together for the better of the whole mankind and for facing global problems threatening the international community. While global peace and security are largely the concern of the principal organs of the UN organisation, many other global values are perused by specialised agencies and subsidiary organisations and programmes. White (2002) points out that the UN includes a collective security council designed to protect the value of peace via asserting on addressing issues not only related to the non-international use of force, but also any outside fomentation of civil war, the effective regulation of weaponry, respect for human rights, and the promotion of higher standards of living. He argues that justice and law are core and primary values within the thriving UN legal order. I agree with White because the UN authorises many specialised agencies including the UNESCO to be responsible for promoting and protecting civil as well as political human rights and freedoms via setting standards (in the form of recommendations, regulations and treaties) in areas related to rights to life, health, education, work, rest, leisure, privacy, fair trial, free movement, economic, social and cultural security, adequate standards of living and social well-being, self-determination and democracy, take part in government, institutional involvement, and participate in all aspects of cultural life both nationally and internationally; freedom from hunger; freedom of expression and assembly; and freedom from slavery, torture, discrimination, and arbitrary arrest. In spite of my notice (United Nations, 2009) that the value of environment protection is not mentioned in the UN Charter, I argue that this value can be seen theoretically via the right to clean environment, and practically as significant development by practice of the UN's inherent powers in relation to social and humanitarian issues.

### 10.3.5 Membership

Since its establishment in 1945, the UN membership is open to all peace-loving nations and only conditioned with their acceptance to stick to, and sign on the UN Charter, regulations and obligations. Since the very beginning, as Bishop (1948) points out, the UN organisation set requisite conditions for any state to be admitted to its membership. He adds that to be a member in the UN, the interested country must be: a state; peace-loving; accept the obligations of the Charter; able to carry out these obligations; and willing to do so. The UN membership entitles every state member with equal rights and requires common duties. Dixon (1983) argues that the UN membership is a privilege giving every member the protection, care and legitimacy authorised and covered by the umbrella organisation of the UN. An example which leads me to agree with Dixon is that although Vanuatu and Belize have a combined population of only a very small number, each of them wields a vote in the General Assembly decision making process equal to that of the most populous and most powerful states.

However, I noticed that the UN Charter distinguishes between two groups of members: the original members who have participated in the UN Conference on International Organisation at San Francisco, or those who have previously signed the UN Declaration on the 1st of January 1942; and the members who have admitted after this conference or that date. In spite of this, documents (United Nations, 2009) show that in both cases it is necessary for all members to have signed and ratified the UN Charter. Dresden (1994) argues that the reason for the division into two groups is essentially technical and does not mean or entail any different rights or obligations set by the UN. I agree with Dresden since it is reasonable that an organisation like the UN requires certain group of members at the beginning to come into existence.

### 10.3.6 Ratification and Signature

The present Charter is ratified by the signatory states in accordance with their respective constitutional processes. Literature (Bielefeld, 1994; United Nations, 2009) shows that Charter comes into force upon the ratifications by the Republic of China, France, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the United States of America, and by majority of the other signatory states. A protocol

of the ratifications deposited is thereupon to be drawn up by the USA Government communicating copies thereof to all the signatory states. The signatory states to the Charter ratifying it after being come into force will become original members of the UN organisation on the date of their ratifications.

### 10.3.7 Miscellaneous Provisions

Literature (Paris, 1994; United Nations, 2002a; 2002b) shows that the UN Charter governs and supervises the scope of treaties and agreements conducted, signed and ratified by any of the UN member states so as to be recognised, acknowledged and admitted from the UN organisation. For protecting international treaties from being breached, Paris (1994) explains that the UN charter acknowledges every treaty and every international agreement entered into by any member of the UN. This leads me to argue that miscellaneous provisions assist in providing service of formal processes on national treaties and agreements. This is because these agreements are ratified in accordance with transmission through diplomatic channels to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the state concerned or via any other accepted means.

## 10.4 Structure

This section addresses the structure of the UN organisation with particular focus on the principal organs of the UN and UNESCO. An explicit analysis follows.

### 10.4.1 The General Assembly

Holcombe and Sobel (1996) point out that the General Assembly consists of all member states of the UN organisation, with a view that each member shall have no more than five representatives and one vote. The General assembly is the only principal organ of the UN where all member states are represented with representatives delegated and subject to instructions of their governments. From a legal point of view Speyer (1994) argues that the General Assembly of the UN is the world's most important political discussion forum. He adds that it holds an eminent position among all organs of the UN. I agree with Speyer

because the UN charter (United Nations, 2009) provides the possibility of non-member states to be observers according to four categories: non-member states which either do not want to join the UN as full members or have not been able to do so; specialised agencies brought into relationship with the UN; intergovernmental organisations of specific resolution to the General Assembly; and national liberation movements. However, Kim and Rosenau (1998) argue that many challenges of global nature face the General Assembly. They point out the main challenge is how the UN generally and the General Assembly particularly work in alignment with the preferences of countries across the globe. I argue that the General Assembly can cope with such challenge through providing a unique context for studying international politics, and assisting the UN member states in dealing with issues most salient to their priorities and ambitions.

However, Holloway (1990) argues that grouping nations in the voting process of the General Assembly is not fair. Although Holloway's argument might be rational, I argue that the order of the world requires creating this classification which does not affect the sovereignty of any country. For example not all universities are of the same level of quality. Certain university might have high level of impact on the global environment and, therefore, should receive peculiar attention and care. Exactly is the case with national countries, where certain country might have greater role in serving the world and, therefore, should occupy high ranking.

### 10.4.2 The Security Council

The idea of the Security Council returns back to the early planning stages in the establishment of the UN organisation, where Kiel (1994) points out that the great powers of the world discussed the need for the maintenance of international peace and for securing close international co-operation in economic, social and cultural matters. He adds that it was agreed that in the new organisation (UN) there should be a link between the special responsibility of the great powers for fulfilling the functions and preponderant position of these powers, as well as guaranteeing a corresponding relationship between the scope of the decision-making competence and the voting procedures applying in making and taking decisions. The result was to charge the Security Council with the primary responsibility for global peace and security. The Security Council is an organ of the UN and therefore derives its power and

validity from the drawn limits set by the UN Charter. Reviewing the website (www.un.org) of the UN reveals that the Security Council acts and operates on behalf of the UN in matters related to global peace and security. Accordingly its actions and decisions are attributed to the UN and not to, or on behalf of, the individual member states.

Chapman and Reiter (2004) argue that the Security Council serves as one of the most important means by which world countries can monitor proposed uses of force. They add that the Council's preferences conform closely to the maintenance of global peace and security. I agree with them as the Council is generally conservative about the use of force and more willing to sanction its use only for genuinely defensive objectives. I argue that the existence of the Security Council generates understandings on how international authority might affect the foreign policy decisions of states. This is because the power of the Security Council means that the presence of international constraints reduces national constraints; otherwise the absence of international constraints increases national constraints which might create turbulence to the international peace and security.

In contrast to the General assembly where every member state is represented, membership in the Security Council forms a numerically limited group so as to guarantee the ability to act quickly enforcing its decisions in the international community. Leipzig (1994) points out that the number of the Security Council has been increased to fifteen members of two types. The first type is the permanent members representing the United Kingdom, the United States of America and Russia reflecting the special status of the three great powers of the World War II. This type was extended to include China and then France. With this type of membership, the UN Charter gives these five powers a prominent position in the UN organisation. The second type is the non-permanent members representing ten members elected by a two-thirds majority of the UN member states present and voting in the General Assembly for term extending over two years. Literature (Tannenwald, 2004; Annan, 2005) shows that the main criteria for election range between the contribution of the candidate to the maintenance of international peace and security and to other purposes of the UN organisation in addition to equitable geographical distribution of seats and the financial contribution.

However, Shinyo (1998) argues that there are many proposals of reform addressing the limitations of its capability and the need to increase the number of both permanent and non-permanent members on transparent criteria and clear bases. He adds that this reform might reinforce the credibility, legitimacy and effectiveness of the Security Council as a centre for common efforts by the world community to maintain the international peace and security in the twenty-first century. I argue that reforming the Security Council is a sensitive issue due to its character and structure. An example explaining this is the question of the veto which is a highly sensitive issue whether permanent members should possess the veto or not, and whether there is a possibility of limiting the scope of the existing veto right possessed by the five permanent members or even abolishing it. Tannenwald (2004) argues that there is still no consensus among the member states regarding this issue. He explains that only the governments of the United Kingdom and France see it is necessary to give the veto right to the permanent members and a few regional powers in case of nominating new candidates for permanent membership. France in particular supports that there should not be existed any differences in status among the members of the Security Council in respect to their rights and obligations.

However, Ryan (2000) argues that the way the Security Council has been used in the 1990s to promote certain norms and to legitimise certain forms of intervention made the low ranking world states to see the UN generally and the Security Council particularly as an agent of westernisation. Perhaps what makes them to form this view is that at present, the west has 80 per cent of the permanent members in the Security Council, whereas the rest of world states possess only 20 per cent. This fact supports the claim that the Security Council, as presently constituted, is instrument of small minority and not representative of the international opinion. This, inevitably, has led to calls for changes and reforms. A Secretary-General (Annan, 2005) asserts that no reform of the UN organisation would be complete without reforming the Security Council as it present reflects the world of 1945, and not that of the twenty-first century requiring a reform to include states that contribute most to the UN financially, militarily and diplomatically. Most important is that the Security Council need to cope with the issue of nuclear weapons and weapons of mass destruction. This issue is a bone is the throat of much of the world which seeks removing the risks of all weapons of mass destruction.

### 10.4.3 The Economic and Social Council

The development of the Economic and Social Council goes back to the times of the League of Nations. Reviewing the Website (www.un.org) of the UN reveals that the Economic and Social Council consists of fifty-four members of the UN elected by the General Assembly, with a view that eighteen members shall be elected each year for a term of three years. Simons (1994) argues that the early intention of establishing the Economic and Social Council denotes the future perspectives envisioned during that time towards the need for creating a more peaceful and prosperous future for all countries across the globe. Hamburg (1994) agrees with Simons and points out that the members of the League of Nations entrusted the Economic and Social Council to proceed with the general supervision of executing agreements concerning humanitarian, social, economic and other matters.

Literature (Berlin, 1994; Halle, 1994) points out that the agreements that the Economic and Social Council makes with specialised agencies and approved by the General Assembly are considered agreements legitimated and authorised under public international law. Simons (1994) argues that the Economic and Social Council serves as central international forum for consideration of international economic and social issues performing wide range of associated functions. He adds that this council functions to promote higher standards of living, full employment, solutions to economic, social and health problems, economic and social development, international cultural and educational co-operation, and universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms of all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion. This means that the Economic and Social Council assists in creating global conditions of stability and well-being which are necessary for peaceful and friendly relations among nations.

However, the activities of the Economic and Social Council have occasionally been faced with criticism and accused of duplication with subsidiary committees and agencies. Although afforded the status of principal organ by the UN Charter, Riggs and Plano (1994) point out that the Economic and Social Council functions under the authority of the General Assembly having the power only to recommend and must defer to the General Assembly in all things.

This means that the Council can scarcely be the final word on anything of importance. Although the Council is authorised to hold meetings, do research, produce studies and reports, draft multilateral conventions, co-ordinate activities of the UN specialised agencies, it is given no power to make this mandate effective. Although this means that the Economic and Social Council cannot make law, I consider that it performs a clear role in helping the UN member states to develop law for affecting certain practices in certain countries concerning certain issues and for certain reasons based on its appraisals, reports and recommendations.

I argue that the current global economic and social case indicates the need to enhance the role and functions of the Economic and Social Council. Framing realities of a new global economy requires a new global consensus between what countries do and what policies of international community act. Achieving such consensus requires the need to create: market-oriented policies; effective institutions and the rule of law; integration with the world states; investments in education and health; rule-based global economy system; strong and stable global financial system; realistic approach to debt; enhanced provision of global public goods; and effective official external assistance. There is no greater challenge than global development representing an indicator for measuring the success of the UN organisation in regard to achieving this global hope. However, I consider global issues. One of these issues is moral as1.2 billion people on this planet live on less than dollar a day. The second issue is central to the global security when some of the biggest conflicts in the world have had their roots in economic failure and despair. The third issue is economic when the world is in need for more integration than before.

### 10.4.4 Trusteeship Council

The Trusteeship Council is the successor of the mandates of the League of Nations and, as Sayre (1948) points out, it is a solution wrestling with complex problem of rule over dependent peoples. It is a concept to an operation of international accountability for non-self-governing peoples. Documents (United Nations, 1995) show that the Trusteeship Council is one of the UN principal organs which were constituted by the General Assembly on the 10$^{th}$ of January 1946 for the administration of certain non-self-governing territories. Reviewing

the website (www.un.org) of the UN reveals that the Trusteeship Council consists of UN member states administering trust territories and other members elected for three-year terms by the General Assembly. Literature (Sayre, 1948; Gottingen, 1994) shows that the Trusteeship Council is operated by high ranking states acting as trustees governing the respective territory for the benefit of its population and with the aim of its progressive development towards independence.

However, a Secretary-General (Annan, 2005) hypothesised that if the UN organisation is to be a vehicle through which states can meet the challenges of today and tomorrow, it needs major reforms to strengthen its relevance, effectiveness and accountability while abolishing those that no longer needed such as the Trusteeship Council. Willson (1996) agrees with Annan and argues that the General Assembly should proceed with steps aimed at eliminating the Trusteeship Council and creating a modern international clearinghouse for self-determination. Goulding (1993) argues that the structural position of the Trusteeship Council indicates that its role and functions in creating global future development in peace-keeping and peace enforcement are at the front of a question mark. He adds that the role and functions of the Trusteeship Council should be part of the operations of the Security Council. This means that there are duplications and interferences in the roles and functions of the Security Council and the Trusteeship council. This is because deploying the UN use of force in a country where the institutions of state have largely collapsed is regarded as a peace-keeping operation which is located among the functions of the Security Council. However, Mohamed (2005) argues that there is a distinction between the characters of the Security Council and the Trusteeship Council. He explains that while the Security Council and its procedures and institutions undertake actions and responsibilities focusing on security and not on handling state building and governance, the Trusteeship Council is responsible for peace-building elements of missions possessing special competence in these matters. In spite of this, Mohamed considers that the expansion of the Security Council raised questions around whether the underlying legal authority for peace-keeping provides legitimate foundation for its missions; and whether peace operations have outgrown the Security Council policies. I argue that the main distinction between the roles and functions of the Security Council and the Trusteeship Council is that Security Council is responsible for peace when the crises is arising while the Trusteeship Council is responsible for peace after the crises.

### 10.4.5 The International Court of Justice

Literature (Simons, 1994; United Nations, 1995; 2002a; 2009) shows that the International Court of Justice was created at the 1945 San Francisco Conference. It represents a culmination of decades of development passing by the Hague Conference of 1899 which had seen the establishment of the Permanent Court of Arbitration, to the League of Nations involving the creation of the Permanent Court of Justice, and at last to April 1945 when the government of the USA invited a committee of Jurists to meet in Washington to study how a new international court could be integrated in the UN organisation. Although the International Court of Justice functions largely outside the UN framework as semi-independent entity headquartered at Hague in the Netherlands, Riggs and Plano (1994) point out that the UN Charter recognises it as one of the six principal organs of the UN. The International Court of Justice is open to all member states of the UN. However, Singh (1993) argues that non-member states seeking legal interest in their protection from the outlawing of acts of aggression, genocide, slavery and racial discrimination can join the court. He adds that in this case the interested country should meet conditions laid down by the General Assembly followed by a recommendation from the Security Council, with a view that its jurisdiction depends on the consent of the states concerned.

Heidelberg (1994) argues that the International Court of Justice has special characteristics distinguishing it from other international judicial institutions. He adds that these characteristics include: it is the only international judicial body opening to all states; it is qualified to become a general court of representing the whole international community under its position in the UN Charter; it is the only judicial body applying generally binding international law without limitation to a defined treaty or other restrictions of a specialised legal field; it is in a better position under the UN Charter than any other judicial institution to contribute through its case law to the development of the international law; and it can equally promote codification of international legal notions, principles and rules of universal conventions (like the UN Convention on the Law of the Sea of 1982 and the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties of 1969).

Paulson (2004) points out that the International Court of Justice fulfils its role and functions as part of the UN to maintain international peace and security, and to achieve international co-operation in solving international problems. He adds that the legality of implementing the decisions of the International Court of Justice is covered by the international law. However, I argue that there have been continued problems regarding certain cases due to the limited ability of the legal decisions to solve complicated political questions. Regarding such issue, Simons (1994) argues that the international pressures to execute the decisions of the International Court of Justice taken against the convicted states or individuals have a prominent role in many states' decisions to implement the judgements of the International Court of Justice. An interesting point he clarifies is that states that were relatively powerful militarily were less compliant when they lost than evenly matched or less powerful states.

Certain dimensions related to the constitution of the International Court of Justice raised some specific issues and questions internationally indicating the need for further enhancements. In regard to the convention on the privileges and immunities, Gill (1990) argues that the International Court of Justice enables the UN to entrust missions to persons who do not have the official status of belonging to the UN, and to guarantee them the privileges and immunities necessary to carry out their functions independently. He adds that although the International Court of Justice is to deal with decisions against international criminalities and those who are responsible for war crimes, crimes against humanity and genocide even if they perpetrated such crimes while acting during their official capacity, the Security Council maintains the right to disregard immunities under the international law to protect international peace and security. That is why Day (2004) argues that the International Court of Justice is in a need to accurately evaluate customary international law concerning immunities granted to certain persons accused of war crimes or crime against humanity.

I consider that the compliance with the international rule of law is an international complex issue related to operating ethics and morality. However, I argue that the current international picture indicates the need to proceed toward an international rule of law to visualise the distinction between the would-be law-makers and the sheer law-breakers. While the would-be law-makers want to operate a hard law, the sheer law-breakers, in contrast, want to operate a soft law. Richmond (2004; 2008) argues that even though there is no enforcement by any

central organ, international law can still be regarded as binding and obligatory, however. I agree with Schachter (1994) that although the political bodies of the UN organisation are not legislative power, they could act like legislatures by adopting law-making treaties, declarations of law and not to have their recommendations to remain merely requests or wishes if the collective intention and will of the governments supported more the authoritative outcomes of the UN decisions.

### 10.4.6 The Secretariat

Documents (United Nations, 2009) show that the title Secretary-General created after the World War II is a culmination of years of development. This title passed by the periods of international disaster to the horrors of the World War I, then, to the feelings of a troubled world towards the need for internationally outstanding full-time supervisor. The realisation of founders of the League of Nations to call the head of their organisation 'Chancellor' and then a 'Moderator' (as suggested during the highest times of the World War II) was perceived as a title for the head of the future United Nations. At last the title arrived to the post war chronicle where the title Secretary-General was chosen. However, Urquhart (1995; 1996) argues that there is still a controversial issue which accompanied the title of the Secretary-General. He adds that the process of electing the Secretary-General of the UN is still a controversial issue. This is because of the discussions since the Allied Powers at Dumbarton Oaks which oppose the ambivalence operated in electing the Secretary-General to be directly elected by the General Assembly based on recommendation from the Security Council. These discussions defend the veto held by the permanent members of the Security Council over the election process of entitling the permanent members the control of appointing the Secretary-General.

Reviewing the website (www.un.org) of the UN reveals that the Secretariat comprises a Secretary-General and staff appointed by the Secretary-General under regulations established by the General Assembly, and according to the requirements of the UN organisation. The Secretary-General is appointed the chief administrative officer of the UN. The Secretariat is a principal organ inside the UN structure. Urquhart (1995) explains that the Secretariat is organised hierarchically into departments headed by under-secretaries general (USG) and

assistant-secretaries general (ASG) which are appointed by the UN Secretary-General who substantially administers the office of the Secretariat, including all staff members of the centralised administrative apparatus of the UN. Harris (2001) argues that the Secretariat is the UN open window upon countries across the globe. I agree with Harris because the Secretariat represents a means through which multicultural and multi-ethnic understanding and co-operation find a place to operate. Rushton (2008) argues that the UN embodies the Secretariat as principal organ with rational-legal authority having the ability to entice its structure with significance degree of independent power, while presenting itself as politically natural technocratic organ. I agree with Rushton because that the Secretary-General is entitled with exhibited significant degree of independence. This means that the Secretary-General has a real and lasting impact on the UN in general and on the Secretariat in particular. I argue that the Secretary-General is seen as the authoritative interpreter of the UN Charter putting him in a powerful position to reinterpret its provisions and to stretch them to cover new situations and ideas. The Secretary-General represents the general good of mankind and works as spokesman for humanity. This places the Secretary-General in strategic position to promote international norms for eradicating poverty, preventing conflict, creating peace, promoting democracy, and sustaining development across the globe.

Although the UN Secretary-General needs to be a consensus creator, independent, fearless and courageous when consulting others on any critical issues, running against the wind has always proved hazardous. Because the reflection of any mistakes done by the Secretary-General may affect the world, Haque (1996) argues that the Secretary-General should be aware of how never to approach any way leads to mistakes. I agree with Haque and I argue that The Secretary-General should also be aware of how never to do anything against the super powers of the world so as not to lose their support, and at the same time he/she should not be a yes-respondent for not annoying the smaller nations so as not to lose their support as well. The best way for the Secretary-General is to be a tactfully righteous.

Montgomery (1999) reveals that there are structural problems related to the work of the Secretariat and contributed to creating operational difficulties which began to emerge. Among the difficulties he reveals are organisational bureaucracy and absence of criteria in dealing with super powers of the world and the smaller countries. These and other

considerations related to the UN Secretariat indicate the need for further enhancements regarding credibility and accountability. Mohamed (2005) argues that it is important to reform the UN Secretariat and the wider network of agencies, funds and programmes that make up the UN rendering it more coherent, efficient, transparent and accountable not just only to member states, but to the public on whose confidence it relies and whose interests it ultimately must serve. I argue that reforming the Secretariat of the UN requires systematisation more open to scrutiny, with a view to empower more the Secretary-General so as to drive through necessary changes entitling member states the right and responsibility to demand more transparency and accountability.

### 10.4.7 The UNESCO

Since the early beginning of its establishment, the UNESCO is still work to contribute to peace and security across the globe by promoting collaboration among nations via education, science and culture. Winton (1972) points out that the UNESCO operates to address global dimensions. He explains that some of these dimensions include: collaborating in the work of advancing mutual knowledge and understanding of peoples through all means of mass communication; promoting free flow of ideas; giving adequate impulse to popular education and to the spread of culture; increasing and diffusing knowledge; assuring the conservation and protection of the world's cultural inheritance; and encouraging international co-operation in all branches of intellectual activities including the international exchange of persons, publications and information.

Documents (UNESCO, 2003) show that the UNESCO aims at creating the conditions for cultures to flourish and to freely interact in mutually beneficial manner. This aim can be attained via encouraging dialogue among cultures with a view to ensuring wider and balanced cultural exchanges in the world in favour of intercultural respect and a culture of peace. Simons (1994) argues that promoting respect for the diversity of cultural expressions and raising the awareness of its value at local, national and international levels can create the link between culture and development for all countries. I agree with Simons and I argue that creating an international system for giving the international accreditation to the distinctive nature and quality of HEIs strengthens international cooperation and solidarity in a spirit of

partnership between countries across the globe. This creation can enhance the capacities of countries particularly low ranking countries. In addition, I argue that this creation can also protect and promote the diversity of cultural expressions, maintain respect for all cultures particularly in issues of human rights, fundamental freedoms, sovereignty, equal dignity, international solidarity and cooperation, sustainable development and equitable access.

Today and among its 193 member states, as documents (UNESCO, 2008a; 2008b; 2008c) show, the heart of the UNESCO's mission and activities functions as a laboratory of ideas for promoting international co-operation in the fields of education, science, culture and communication. I argue that these operations can create the conditions for genuine dialogue based upon respect for shared values and the dignity of each civilization and culture. This means that the UN in general and the UNESCO in particular are adequate to proceed with the world pressing requirements for visions of sustainable development among which is providing highly international quality higher education that is available for all on the basis of merit without discrimination. Reviewing the website (www.unesco.org) of the UNESCO reveals that the UNESCO has worked to improve education worldwide. An example of this is the UNESCO three forums of 2002, 2004 and 2007 on accreditation, quality assurance and recognition of qualifications (see section 2.8 of chapter two). The UNESCO has worked also on natural sciences where UNESCO has developed several international programmes to better assess and manage the Earth's resources reinforcing the capacities of low ranking countries in science, engineering and technology. Human sciences, culture, and communication are among UNESCO's priorities for empowering people through access to information and knowledge with special emphasis on freedom of expression, promoting communication development, and advancing the use of education, science and culture. This means that the UNESCO performs integral role in the UN organisation and works closely with a wide range of national and regional organisations.

The UNESCO structure consists of different authorities and divisions. There are four main divisions governing the overall structure of the UNESCO. These four divisions are: the General Conference; Executive Committee; Secretariat; and National Commissions. Documents (UNESCO, 2008c) show that the General Conference is the primary decision-making body comprising representatives of all member states meeting every two years to

determine (following the principle of one vote per country) the policies and main lines of work of the UNESCO. It is meant by the General Conference to appoint, every four years, the Director-General based on the recommendation of the Executive Board. The General Conference deals with different dimensions which include: credentials; communications received from member states; the adoption of the agenda; the work of the UNESCO; discussing reports; and general relations and resolutions (UNESCO, 2005). Regarding Executive Board, documents (UNESCO, 2008a; 2008b) show that it composes of 58 member states and meets twice a year to examine the UNESCO's programme and budget. It is responsible for ensuring the execution of the programme adopted by the General Conference. The Executive Board is elected by the General Conference and is one of the three constitutional organs of UNESCO. Its work is to give decisions via institutes and centres on areas related to education, natural sciences, social and human sciences, culture, communication and information. The Secretariat, as documents (UNESCO, 2008c) indicate, consists of the Director-General as the executive head of the UNESCO and staff responsible for formulating proposals and implementing the approved programme for appropriate action by the General Conference and the Executive Board. The network of National Commissions is a unique feature of UNESCO within the entire UN organisation. Although they act as national entities geared to pursue tasks and priorities set by their governments, documents (UNESCO, 2003) show that these commissions provide UNESCO with unique network of intellectual and scientific communities in the promotion of its message across national, regional, and international boundaries. This network represents the UNESCO's essential link to civil societies and constitutes comparative advantage and indispensable tool for succeeding the operations of the UNESCO.

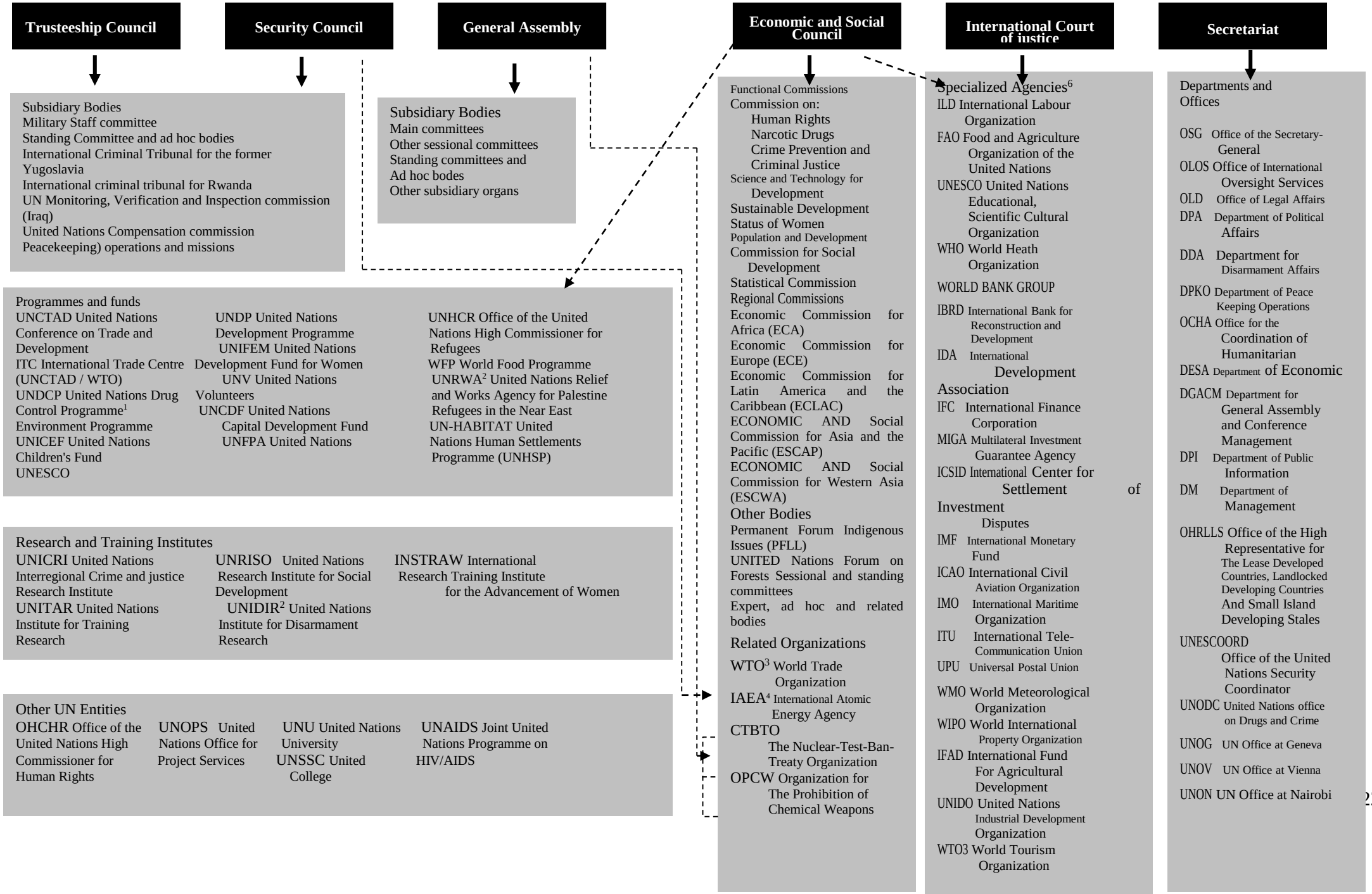
However, documents (UNESCO, 2008a) show that the UNESCO faces challenges of international nature. According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 771 million of world's citizens are illiterate, and that 1 out of every 5 primary school-age children in low ranking countries is not in school comprising over 100 million globally most of them are girls. This means that strategies and activities of the UNESCO have to actively contributing to the achievement of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (UNMDGs). These challenges lead me to argue that the UNESCO needs to give focus and consideration to: halving the proportion of people living in extreme poverty; assisting in creating

international quality education; eliminating gender disparity in education; combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and infectious diseases; and ensuring environmental sustainability.

## 10.5 Figuration

Since its creation in 1945, the UN has been the subject of periodic reviews resulted in continuous process of reform as response to emerging and pressing challenges. Annan (2005) points out that the UN assists in addressing the global urgency of taking more effective action to achieve the millennium project and defeating threats of global nature so as to entitle the planet future generations with the freedom from fear and want and living in dignity. Coate *et al*. (1990) argue that operations of the UN serve for theorising and executing two main purposes. The first purpose is peacekeeping policies prescribing courses of collective international action aimed at preventing or halting armed conflicts. The second purpose is represented in peace-building policies aimed at eliminating the social and economic sources of tension. Muller (1992) argues that the UN operates to serve national accounts through providing framework for encouraging development planning particularly in low ranking countries. However, Idris and Bartolo (2000) argue that the UN is witnessing gap that exists between the proposals and recommendations and their implementation. They add that this gap seems to be rooted in the UN since 50 years ago. Porter (1966) points out that there is a gap between national and global objectives and the gap between words and deeds in the operations of the UN. However, I consider what Annan (2005) clarified that most of the UN specialised agencies have been undergoing reform in character and structure. The UN includes principal organs and sub-organisations formulating the overall UN organisation. The following figure depicts the UN organisation.

Figure 10: The United Nations



## 10.6 Summary of Chapter Ten

This chapter discussed the character and structure of the United Nations. The presentation of chapter ten indicates that the UN is adequate to include new organisation for the ‘systematic’ understanding of quality. With the end of chapter ten, the thesis turns its pages to the end by generating the research findings which are presented in the next chapter.

# Chapter Eleven

# Findings

## 11.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to conclude how well quality can be systematically reported across the levels of analysis postulated in Figure 9 of chapter four. The following pages depict the thesis findings.

## 11.2 Findings from the National Operations in Quality

The purpose of this section is to conclude how well quality in the UK and Egypt can be comparably and systematically reported across the levels of analysis postulated in Figure 9 of chapter four. The following pages depict the comparative findings from investigating current operations in the development of quality in the UK and Egypt.

Quality of the UK and Egypt has in common more than they have in difference. However, quality in the UK is much more developed and enhanced unlike quality in Egypt, where further development is required. The commons that the two cases share are not surprising as the development of quality in Egypt has been undertaken in collaboration with British consultants. The UK experience has influenced Egypt. The Egyptian experience in quality depended during its establishment on consultants from the UK. Up to the present the UK consultants still work as advisory committees to the Egyptian context. Even after establishing the regional networks like the ANQAHE, the UK influence on Egypt has continued. Documents (QAAP, 2007) show that British consultants have been involved in establishing quality in Egypt. The main aim of the research two case studies, therefore, is to use the wider experience of quality to propose implications for policy and practice in the field across the global context.

In spite of these commons, the novelty of quality in Egypt may cause it to be viewed differently. The emergence of markets in higher education, the increase in tuition fees, competitions among HEIs, lack of trust in professionals and the increasing demand for accountability and efficiency are among the rationale behind the emergence of quality in the UK, whereas it is not the case in Egypt. The main difference between quality in the two contexts is that quality in the UK is based on initiation, creation and innovation whereas quality in Egypt is based on imitation. Literature (Dearing, 1997; Alderman and Brown 2005; Harvey, and Stensaker, 2008) shows that quality in the UK is a result of studies and research which proved the need to establish the QAA. Contrasting to this is quality in Egypt, where it is a result of imitation that the Egyptian Government (represented in the Ministry of Higher Education) imitated quality from the high ranking countries. That is why quality in Egypt operates accreditation, quality assurance, assessment, evaluation and quality control represented in the Quality Assurance Centres in Universities and Quality Assurance Units within faculties. This means that the Egyptian Government imitated all operations of quality in the high ranking countries like accreditation from the USA, quality assurance from the UK, quality assessment and evaluation from Australia and quality control from France (see section 1.2 of chapter one and section 12.2 of chapter twelve and Appendix C). The UK operates quality assurance only as quality in the UK has been established based on research and investigation.

It has been indicated that the UK context focuses on quality assurance and not accreditation. The Egyptian context focuses on both quality assurance and accreditation. This is because quality in Egypt has been imitated from the high ranking countries and was not established as a result of investigation and research. In Egypt, quality assurance is the responsibility of HEIs while accreditation is the responsibility of the NAQAAE. For any higher education institution seeking accreditation, it has to prove its quality and assure it.

There is a difference between quality assurance and accreditation. Quality assurance is a general system combining a set of sub-systems among them is accreditation. Accreditation is one of the different approaches of quality assurance. The other approaches of quality assurance include assessment, audit, evaluation, quality control and external review (see section 5.2 of chapter five). Although both quality assurance and accreditation have overlaps

and similarities, certain dimensions separate them. Quality assurance focuses on processes while accreditation focuses on the outputs. Quality assurance is indicated more by qualitative dimensions while accreditation is recognised by quantitative factors. Quality assurance is a general term that includes processes of assuring the overall quality and is more general than accreditation. Accreditation focuses on rankings and numbers but quality assurance focuses on operations and dimensions. Accreditation is mainly quantitative but quality assurance is mainly qualitative. While accreditation focuses on the outputs, quality assurance focuses on the inputs, operations and outputs. Accreditation is meant mainly by rankings and rating HEIs but quality assurance is meant by protecting the public from low quality higher education. Although the operations of quality assurance publish its reports publicly, it is not for ranking reasons but for informing the partners and beneficiaries about the level of quality certain higher education institution enjoys.

While the approach followed in Egypt is the external evaluation and accreditation, the approach followed in the UK is audit. Egypt's quality varies to include institutions and programmes but the UK case is meant by institutions. The QAA in the UK is meant by assuring the quality of teaching but the NAQAAE in Egypt is meant by assuring and accrediting the quality of teaching. However, Neyland (2007) points out that accreditation is initially accorded to HEIs first before accrediting the quality of programmes. Regarding research, documents reveal no evidence that there is an organisation responsible for the quality of research in Egypt. However, in the UK the case is different, where the Research Excellence Framework (previously the Research Assessment Exercise) is the responsible body for assuring the quality of research. Most important is that neither the quality of teaching nor the quality of research has impact on funding HEIs in Egypt. On the contrary, although quality of teaching does not impact distribution of funding in the UK, quality of research informs the distribution of quality related money among HEIs. However, quality in the two contexts aims to cover both accountability and enhancement.

Although quality in Egypt achieved the necessary groundwork, reports (OECD, 2010) show that quality documentations need to be available to academic staff in HEIs. Further training and professional development opportunities need to be provided. In addition, indications that good performance is recognised and rewarded should be declared publicly and should impact

on funding HEIs. Most important is the need to overcome the lack of systematisation. Quality has the potential to be viewed in a systematic vision combining the related dimensions with the sector of education. To achieve this important work, a lot remains to be done at the institutional level. In addition, quality culture needs to be grounded.

Quality in the UK and in Egypt lacks systematisation. Quality in the two cases is separated from other sectors like labour market, industry, commerce, business, agriculture, health and other sectors. Establishing an umbrella systematisation of quality combining all sectors can make quality in the two contexts more systematic.

There is a general agreement that implementing quality in Egypt is an important step towards the quality of provision. However, quality in Egypt faces problems impeded in implementation, such as poor infrastructure and nominal fees, lack of proper accountability, inadequate funding, massive numbers of students, and poor academic pay. I argue that these problems should be solved first for attaining a proper quality. Quality is rational initiative but needs to be taken more seriously. Support from government and higher education society should be increased to guarantee the sustainability of the project.

The majority of interviewees agreed that quality is important to HEIs. However, they considered that quality adds extra burdens particularly of documentation and paper work, which take too much of academics' time and effort. In spite of this, I argue that the impact of operating quality deserves effort, time and money (see chapter fourteen). All participants agreed that quality includes rules which should guarantee a strong dialogue between partners and beneficiaries. However, these rules need activation as many laws and regulations governing higher education have been established before the operations of quality. For example, HEIs in Egypt have no decision on the number of students they accept every year, which inevitably affects the quality of provision and institutional autonomy. The poor pay of academics in Egypt forces them to have additional jobs to secure their life expenses. There is a general agreement that poor academic pay is one of the most significant factors which weakens the institutional autonomy, and efficiency and, therefore, quality of HEIs.

It has been indicated that it is still early to decide whether quality in Egypt is efficient because the project is still under development. The operations of quality in Egypt are in the transitional phase. The project of quality in Egypt has not been completed yet. The culture of quality is still new in Egypt. However, all interviewees see that quality is making change across HEIs. It is important to raise the awareness of the culture of quality. In spite of this, I consider that the process of disseminating the culture of quality takes time, effort and money.

Quality assists in equalising the available educational opportunities (see section 5.3 of chapter five). It is reasonably fair for HEIs, partners and beneficiaries. Accreditation and audits are fair because they are done according to published criteria from the agencies of quality in the UK and Egypt. The team of external review and/or audit panels are objective and transparent. The process of peer review guarantees this objectivity and transparency. Although paper may be not highly reviewed accurately, quality is fair as teams and panels of external review work in alignment with transparent criteria for evaluation and indicators for measuring performance. However, both of quality in the UK and Egypt are in need for systematisation. Quality has the potential to be envisioned as an overall system combining a set of sub-systems and not only seen as an enhancing mechanism. It is all about the systematic vision in everything we experience.

Interviewees have concerns about the level of uniformity and procedures. I consider that paper work and administration add more pressure on academics and do not motivate them to improve the quality of teaching itself. In spite of this, the problem is not in quality itself but in the operators who operate quality procedures. The operators need to be creative in facilitating the procedures and operations of quality. This makes the load lighter and the task easier. The burdens and requirements of operations of quality is not the fault of quality itself but it is the fault of the operators who operate quality. For example, quality in the University of Exeter and Mansoura University lacks systematisation. In the UK, quality of teaching is separated from quality of research. Two different bodies represent two different techniques. While, in the UK, QAA is responsible for the quality of teaching, the Research Excellence Framework is responsible for the quality of research. The two bodies have different aims and operations. The context shows the potential for ‘systematic’ understanding of quality not only to connect the quality of teaching with the quality of research but also to connect them

together with the quality in other sectors across the country. Both of heath sector, education sector, industry sector, agriculture sector, commerce sector and the other sectors are in need to work under an overall systematisation. Since the UK is a unified country, the vision of the system of quality must be unified, systematic and futuristic. It is all located in the 'systematic' understanding of quality. This exemplifies that the gap of systematisation existed in the UK is also existed in Egypt. The two contexts need 'systematic' understanding of quality towards a collective and futuristic vision.

The interviewees agreed that quality is rational, efficient and reasonable. However, I consider that it seems from the UK context that the quality of research is more important than the quality of teaching. This interprets why quality of research is connected to funding but the quality of teaching has no links to any sort of funding. This makes the attention of HEIs in the UK to be drawn to research only because of its impact on funding. This concludes that a systematic vision can be the solution towards the 'systematic' understanding of quality in the UK. Both of teaching, research and community outreach and knowledge transfer are of equal importance. The quality of teaching impacts on students (fees payers) who are the future professionals of the labour market. The quality of research impacts of creating new knowledge, finding new solutions and envisioning the future. The quality of community outreach and knowledge transfer impact on society and the wider environment. This means that the systematic vision creates balance in looking at teaching, research and community outreach and knowledge transfer. This leads me to argue that systematisation of quality creates equity (see chapter thirteen).

The problems of quality enhancement in the UK are implied in the operators and not in quality. To date, the operators of quality in the UK do not realise that quality is an overall system combining a set of sub-systems like internal and external evaluation. In addition, quality assurance in the UK is highly dispersed and lacks systematisation. Quality assurance is an overall system that is bigger than the entire collection of its sub-system. This is because it combines all sub-systems plus creating the interaction between its sub-systems. Quality in the different sectors across the UK needs an umbrella system to combine them together in a systematic way. Perhaps a national system for quality covering the different sectors across the country would be the solution.

Funding in the case of Egypt is based on line-item mechanism whereas it is based on block grants, cost-sharing and competitive methods in case of the UK. However, there is no funding formula for teaching. The funding of teaching in the UK is based on students' tuition fees but funding research is quality driven. Contrasting to this is the case of Egypt, where the laws and regulations do not allow HEIs to diverse their sources of funding while the regulations of the UK case allow HEIs to diversify their sources of funding. Students in Egypt pay modest registration fees and that their HEIs are not allowed to charge students higher fees. Contrasting to this is the UK case, where HEIs are allowed to charge undergraduate students higher tuition fees up to certain cap decided by the government. In addition, there are no caps on tuition fees for postgraduate studies in the UK, where universities can charge variable tuition fees. Student financial support mechanisms differ in the two cases. The financial incentives for students are based on merit in Egypt. But in the UK, income contingent loans are available for both tuition fees and living expenses.

The operations of quality in Egypt are overly centralised but these of the UK are highly ranked and decentralised. The Government of Egypt manages HEIs in a regulatory environment where as HEIs in the UK are institutions established as charities serving public benefit. HEIs in the UK are increasingly being run more like businesses. The context of the UK shows freedom and democracy while in Egypt there is excessive control on academic affairs and on the appointment of academic staff.

An important dimension that can affect the quality of higher education is that academic pay and promotion in Egypt are based on seniority as academic staff are treated as civil servants. Contrasting to this is the UK context, where academic pay and promotion are linked to performance and provision of quality. The operations in Egypt denote randomness and lacks performance-based funding. Neither the quality of teaching nor the quality of research informs distribution of budgets among HEIs in Egypt. Although the quality of teaching does not impact distribution of funding in the UK, quality of research informs the distribution of money among HEIs. In addition, the laws and regulations in Egypt represent a crucial issue, where HEIs cannot charge student for the tuition fees. These laws and regulations created weak operations of low quality. Contrasting to this is the UK case, where HEIs are allowed

to charge students tuition fees up to a certain cap decided by the government, with a view that these fees are dedicated for improving the quality of education students experience and the facilities provided. The case of Egypt lacks competition between HEIs as they have no say on the level of student recruitment and the nominal fees are the same in all HEIs. This lack creates inequity between public and private universities due to the duality of criteria and policies governing higher education in Egypt. Contrasting to this is the case of the UK, which is based on competition between HEIs in terms of student recruitment and variable tuition fees for postgraduate studies. However, the laws and regulations in the UK govern tuition fees for undergraduate students.

The culture of the context in Egypt inhibits creation, initiation and innovation. The operations of quality in Egypt are a result of imitation to what is existed in the high ranking countries. Egypt's case is based on imitation and not on creation. But the operations of quality in the UK are a result of study and research. The culture of quasi-markets encourages creation and innovation. The existing culture in Egypt created lack of trust between HEIs, government and the society. This deepens the lack of trust in professionals to be self-regulating. The case of Egypt experiences direct control from the Government particularly in student numbers and tuition fees. This contrasts the case of the UK, where HEIs are responsive to the needs of students, employers and society. While academics in Egypt have rare and limited opportunities of movement between institutions, academics in the UK are on open contracts and are able to move between institutions. Most important is the core of the educational process, where students' voice is important to be heard in the UK. But with the case of Egypt, students are weakly represented and rarely heard. Even the practices in this aspect are merely for routine, where the results are not taken seriously for practical implications.

Having presented the perceptions of interviewees about quality in the UK and Egypt, it is clear that quality in the University of Exeter in the UK and in Mansoura University in Egypt is influenced by the national agenda of their national agencies for quality. Although this minimises the degree of autonomy allowed to these two universities, this influence seems to be rational. I argue that national governments in the UK and Egypt, agencies of quality in the UK and Egypt and HEIs in the UK and Egypt fulfil each other. The national governments of the UK and Egypt need to make sure that their money given to the University of Exeter and

Mansoura University has been spent on education that is value-for-money. Both of the University of Exeter and Mansoura University need finance, reputation, trust, and large sustainable student market. Agencies of quality in the UK and Egypt are there to provide the University of Exeter and Mansoura University with what they need subject to the level of their quality. Governments of the UK and Egypt need independent bodies (agencies of quality) to provide them with accurate reports about quality in the University of Exeter and Mansoura University, so these governments can decide what proportions of money each university of them deserves according to its achievements and according to its level of quality achieved. This means that governments of the UK and Egypt, the University of Exeter and Mansoura University and agencies of quality in the UK and Egypt are working in the cycle of public good. This is because governments of the UK and Egypt need to ensure that the University of Exeter and Mansoura University for which these two governments provide funding are of satisfactory quality or better, and to ensure speedy rectification of unsatisfactory quality. In addition, operating quality encourages improvements of quality in the University of Exeter and Mansoura University through the publication of quality reports and annual reports. I argue that quality is necessary as it operates the cycle of public good. The cycle of public good is large and complex and needs order and regulation, without which the public good cannot be coordinated or governed. Quality is there for harmonisation and governance of the public good. Quality is not only a means of control, direction and prevention but also a system for life development (see section 5.8 of chapter five). This concludes that quality created a shift in the relationship between HEIs, agencies of quality, national governments and individuals, where the judgment now is located in the hands of the public.

Most important is that the research fieldwork respondents in the UK and Egypt broadly assured that there is potential for 'systematic' understanding of quality. Currently, HEIs can seek national accreditation via national agencies of quality. To obtain the international accreditation, HEIs can apply for the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality dedicated specifically for this purpose in addition to systematising quality in the world. All research participants agreed on potential of 'systematic' understanding of quality, and that it is appropriate to achieve this through the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the structure of the UN organisation as multidimensional

international organisation for governing and operating the 'systematic' understanding of quality. The research participants in the interviews asserted the rationale for selecting experts and academics from across the globe for managing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality based on qualitative factors including abilities and expertise and not via quantitative factors like representations and numbers.

## 11.3 Findings from the Regional Operations in Quality

Chapter four revealed that quality has been established in the UK as a result of research and studies and that quality has been established in Egypt as a result of imitation to practices from high ranking countries. The same gap is repeated here at the regional level. Section 5.2.1 reveals that the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education has been established as a result of European Pilot Project for Evaluating Quality in Higher Education (1994-95) which indicated the need for sharing and developing experience in the area of quality assurance among the European countries. Contrasting to the case of establishing the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education, the establishment of the Arab network (ANQAHE) has been imitated (without conducting research or studies) from the practices of high ranking regions. This generates a conclusion that low ranking regions tend to prefer imitation than creation. The nature of the gap existing between the UK and Egypt is also existed between the European region and the Arab region. The European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education is based or research and studies but the Arab Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education is based on imitation from practices existing in the high ranking regions.

The low ranking world tends to import solutions to their problems from high ranking world. I argue that creation is better than imitation. I mean it is better to low ranking world to create solutions to their problems based on research and investigation. This is because practices operated in high ranking world are not necessarily adequate solutions to the problems of low ranking world. An evidence rationalising this is that although low ranking world (Egypt for example) imitated quality from high ranking world, quality of higher education in low ranking world is still low compare to quality of higher education in high ranking world,

although both of the two worlds operate quality. I suggest that each country, and therefore each region, has its own context and problems which justify the rationale of research and investigation in creating solutions to the existing problems. I argue that the 'systematic' understanding of quality can be effective in the process of creating the required solutions (see section 5.7 and section 5.8 of chapter five).

It is clear that the literature on regional operations in quality is rare. However, I have reviewed the websites of these regional operations (see Appendix C). I can conclude that the philosophical assumptions of these regional initiatives and networks are similar to each other. The main common similarities are represented in that these initiatives and networks operate to facilitate the work on quality between the member countries in the respective region. The common aim is to create cooperation between the members of each network in the field of quality. Another similarity characterising the regional operations in quality is that none of these regional network performs the work of accrediting HEIs. They only organise the work of quality between national agencies of quality in the respective region. The regional networks operate as clearing houses to disseminate information on quality and report on good practices in the field.

However, certain differences distinguish each regional network. It has been indicated that each network has certain number of requirements which are different from these of the other networks and should be achieved by its members. Each network guides and supports its members on how they can undertake particular responsibilities toward their regional area. There is a reciprocal recognition among the members of each network of any HEI successfully examined by certain member. However, there is no common terminology, standards, or practice of quality that could apply among these regional networks. I argue that these networks are in need to adopt agreed phenomenology, standards and practice in quality. In addition, there is a lack of systematisation in the work of these regional networks. There is no clear system meant by governing and coordinating these regional networks. These operations would be enhanced if there was an umbrella system to govern these regional networks which operated as an overall system coordinating a set of sub-systems. In this overall regional system (regional network), each national agency of quality can be sub-

system. This systematic vision can combine the dispersed dimensions between the national countries in the respective region (see section 5.8 of chapter five and see chapter thirteen).

## 11.4 Findings from the World Operations in Quality

From this analysis it can be concluded that although geographical factors are no longer challenges towards international quality higher education the worldwide picture of quality lacks systematisation, governance and coordination. This research, therefore, seeks to make new intellectual contribution for creating and operating new coordinating body of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality located, perhaps, within the United Nations to which the vast majority of countries are already members. Such a body could assist in eradicating the gaps existed between higher education in high and low ranking countries by enabling nations' gifted individuals to interact with, and contribute to national knowledge creation without necessity of migration.

Although the partnership between the UNESCO and the World Bank created the initiative of GIQAC which is dedicated specifically to enhance the quality of higher education in the low ranking countries, chapter four reveals that higher education and research in Egypt are of low quality. The analysis of quality in Egypt as a low ranking country ranged on a number of themes starting from the smallest level of analysis in the world (individual level) and ending with the biggest level of analysis in the world (the world level). This means that the solution of the UNESCO and the World Bank does not lead to enhance quality in low ranking countries. I argue that the main reason for this is the lack of systematisation. The initiative of the UNESCO and the World Bank (GIQAC) operates randomly and not systematically. This rationalises the potential for creating an overall international system for governing and systematising systematisation of quality across the globe.

However, I consider that international operations in quality assisted many nations in establishing agencies for quality. In spite of this, low ranking countries imitated quality from high ranking countries and did not conduct research to identify the best mechanisms of quality which may be suitable to the relevant context. That is why most low ranking countries operate all of quality assurance, accreditation, evaluation, external review, audit and quality

control. However, quality of their higher education is still low. An example of this is Egypt, where all forms of quality are operated due to imitation from high ranking countries.

Some high ranking countries started to conduct mutual recognition of qualifications and programmes of HEIs. This mutual recognition between high ranking countries indicates that quality is capable for internationalisation. However, the investigation of the research first phase reveals that the current picture of quality worldwide has only two levels: national and regional levels. These levels are represented in the national agencies and regional networks of quality. The international operations in quality are only initiatives and calls and that they lack systematisation.

The mutual recognition and memoranda of understanding occur only between countries of similar level of quality. The vast majority of these agreements are between the high ranking countries, where the level of their higher education quality is high. However, through investigating current operations in the development of quality in Egypt, I argue that the level of quality of higher education in low ranking countries does not qualify them to conduct agreements of mutual recognition with the high ranking countries. This is because of the gap existed between the two levels of quality in the two different contexts. This indicates an international problem.

The investigation of the international operations in quality reveals the lack of systematisation between these operations. The existence of national and regional levels of quality and the absence of the international level was the main question standing behind conducting this research. Not only the absence of the international level of quality but also the negative aspects (on low ranking countries) resulting from the absence of the international level of quality are also among the incentives and factors standing behind conducting this investigation. Most important is that the international operations in quality across the globe lack consistency, governance and systematisation. There is no coordinating systematic organisation dedicated to operating and systematising quality in the world. This is a global problem. If this problem continues to exist, the gap of quality between higher education in high ranking countries and low ranking countries will continue to exist, and that the lack of systematisation of quality in the world will continue to exist too. I argue that creating

international level of quality can facilitate governance and systematisation of quality across the globe.

However, I consider that creating international level of quality requires 'systematic' understanding of quality and consistency with the national and regional level of quality. For this reason, the international level of quality is not to be a substitutive to the national or regional level of quality but the international level of quality is to exist and operate in addition to current existing national and regional levels. Any higher education institution can seek the national accreditation from its national agency for quality. But if any higher education institution is interested in obtaining the international accreditation, it has to be via dedicated international organisation (a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality) meant by providing the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe. Creating this international organisation for international quality requires systematisation. I argue that the biggest organisation in the world is the UN. This is because the vast majority of countries are members in the UN organisation. The existence of the UN rationalises and facilitates creating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. I argue that the UN organisation can include a new system like the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. However, investigating the character and structure of the UN organisation rationalises and strengthens my argument. For this reason, the next section addresses the character and structure of the UN organisation to investigate the potential of the UN to include a new organisation like the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for providing the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe.

## 11.5 Summary of Chapter Eleven

This chapter is an overview to the thesis findings. The thesis now comes to its climax by discussing its findings which is presented in the next chapter.

# Chapter Twelve

# Discussion

## 12.1 Introduction

The systematic structure of the thesis starts from the whole and moves to the part before returning back to the whole. The thesis starts its first phase with chapter two which investigated the literature review as a whole. The thesis, then, moved via this chapters six and seven to addresses the part through investigating, in depth and detail, current operations in the development of quality in the UK and Egypt. The thesis, therefore, returns back to the whole via this chapter (twelve) which discusses the research findings. An explicit analysis follows.

## 12.2 Discussion

The development of quality in the UK, subsequently, witnessed a series of reform, enhancement and innovation covering a wide range of dimensions. These developments required assuring in the UK government that HEIs are maintaining adequate standards and that the expenditure of public funds provides value for money. Higher education funding councils were given a legal responsibility for implementing a programme of teaching quality assessment where in 1993 the Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC) was established to assure the quality of academic programmes. However, duplication in operations was perceived between the work of funding councils and HEQC. The pre-1992 universities represented a period of significant increase in demands to meet the requirements of external assessment agencies with a corresponding increase in administrative work and managerial direction leading to the establishment of the QAA in 1997 with a nature of consolidation, institutional audit and subject assessment.

The operations of development of quality in the UK are founded on the notion of quality as value for money, expressed by the call to universities to be accountable for the money they

receive. Documents (DES, 1991) show that HEIs in the UK have to be efficient and effective. This notion, however, is not the only one present in the request to HEIs. Quality defined as being fit for purpose is also present in the government's White Paper. Harvey and Green (1993) argue that quality assessment should be done against the distinctive mission defined by each institution. Brown (2004) argues that these conflicting perspectives are considered to be the origin of the multiple changes that lead to further and future development in quality.

Quality in the UK started with the establishment of the QAA in 1997. Since then, HEIs have had to undertake two quality assurance techniques: assessment and quality audit. Documents (QAA, 2003) show that quality is carried out as two separate processes (institutional audit and subject review). Since 2002 these two techniques combined under the 'institutional audit'. This review of the operations constitutes the centre of the externally driven quality assurance that universities have to undergo, based mainly on a self-assessment report which is then followed by a review visit. As stated in the Quality Assurance Agency Handbook for Institutional Audits (QAA, 2002), this process is intended to combine scrutiny of internal quality assurance at an institutional level with investigations of how those operations operate at the level of the discipline. Documents (QAA, 2006) show that institutional audits focus on the examination of three aspects: the effectiveness of the internal quality assurance structures and mechanisms; the accuracy, completeness and reliability of the information that HEIs publish about the quality of programmes and the standards of awards; and examples of the internal quality assurance processes at work at the level of the programme. I argue that these three aspects reveal the validity and reliability of the information generated by internal quality processes of HEIs.

Blackmore (2004) point out that the method that includes quality processes is established as a result of the realisation of the massive cost of the previous arrangements to the institutions. This is in addition to burdens quality places on academics and HEIs as a whole. However, Harvey (2005) argues that these methods represent a step forward in returning some institutional autonomy. In spite of Blackmore's indications, I argue that the operations of quality in the UK have been improved. Documents (QAA, 2006) show that the present arrangements of quality in the UK are rather new. They have continued to change following the academic review of subjects which was completed by the end of 2006, leaving

institutional audits as the main external evaluation tool, and replacing discipline audit trails with institutional audits that generate fewer burdens on academics and HEIs.

The main goal of the external review/audit is to review the correct functioning of HEIs and then to provide feedback to HEIs regarding their internal processes of quality assurance. Blackmore (2004) argues that these internal processes are considered to be the core of quality in HEIs and they seem to be widely accepted as the main means for the assurance and enhancement of quality within HEIs. This is because they have prevailed over the modifications conducted during the last decade. Mayes (2006) notices that in the evolution of the external review arrangements, there has been a move from quality control (concerned with the inspection of outputs) towards quality assurance which focuses on auditing the mechanisms for the management of quality embedded in the processes. The discussion that sets in here is whether the arrangements of quality in the UK actually lead to improvement.

Quality enhancement is an issue in the UK. The documents (QAA, 2000) of the QAA states that quality enhancement is not the main focus of the agency's activities, but it is the responsibility of HEIs, and it should come about as a consequence of their academic management. However, Lomas (2003) argues that this assumption does not seem to be the case. Hoecht (2006) agrees with Lomas and argues that external quality assurance is mostly associated with accountability rather than enhancement. Harvey and Newton (2004) argue that the operations of quality in the UK are more concerned with the past rather than the future. They, therefore, perceive quality as not being able to transform teaching and learning practice. I agree with Harvey and Newton that quality in the UK lacks the systematic and future vision. Quality in the UK needs to be envisioned, and then realised and operated, as an overall system combining a set of sub-systems for assuring the quality of higher education. This means that quality in the UK requires corrective actions towards systematisation (see section 5.8 of chapter five and section 6.4 of chapter six).

Hoecht (2006) argues that the quality of teaching in higher education is an issue. However, he considers that the type of quality management currently established comes with high costs and might not necessarily achieve real improvements in teaching and learning. The findings of his study report that while academic staff make great efforts to be good teachers to their

students, the new quality management regime at the UK universities reduces their professional autonomy and academic freedom. I agree with Hoecht that professional autonomy and academic freedom are key factors for the original career choice of academics to become university lecturers. However, the operations of quality require regulation and order. Without this systematisation, the quality of HEIs is difficult to be attained. An example of this is the UK context, where Underwood (2000) points out that the processes of teaching and learning in the British higher education sector are subject to excessive amounts of inspection and review. However, he argues that quality assessment is not much loved within a higher education sector although it is among the most scrutinised education in the world.

The perceptions of academics to quality constitute an issue. In his investigation of how academics perceive quality in their work life, Newton (2002) argues that quality is identified as bureaucracy, inspection and intrusion, distracting academic staff from their teaching tasks. He found evidence that academics are somehow adapting the requirements according to their specific context. This means that while the notion of quality is common, the operations and procedures might differ from context to context depending on the perceptions to quality. The current contexts view quality as an enhancing mechanism operated for a better quality in HEIs. In spite of this, I argue that it is better to view quality as an overall system combining a set of sub-systems for assuring and accrediting the quality of HEIs.

Harvey (2005) argues that the arrangements of quality still tend to promote compliance and conformity rather than enhancement. He moves forward suggesting where improvement lies: external evaluations have accountability and compliance focuses rather than the encouragement of continuous quality improvement of the student experience. Although I agree with Harvey that improvement of the student experience is a function of internal review and monitoring processes, I argue that quality involves conformance and enhancement (see section 5.2 of chapter five). If there are any faults emanated from operating quality, this does not mean that there is a problem in quality. Instead of this, it means that the problem is located in the operators and not in the system of 'systematic' understanding of quality. There is a difference between the operator and the system. The system is the object which receives the actions but the operator is the subject who performs the actions. As a result, the challenge for quality enhancement moves from the context of the system to the ground of the operators.

The internal quality of HEIs raises some issues. The procedures of internal quality assurance in the UK are part of the requirements that HEIs have implemented as part of their responsibility for the quality of their programmes. These mechanisms are expected to be in line with the Code of Practice established by the QAA. The Code of Practice is part of the infrastructure devised by the QAA to guide on good practice in relation to internal management of quality and standards within HEIs. Documents (QAA, 2004) show that the code of practice is divided into sections which have been elaborated. Each section is organised as a list of precepts or principles that HEIs should comply with. Many of these sections have undergone revisions to maintain their currency. Each higher education institution should consider every section according to its internal procedures of quality assurance. However, I noticed through reviewing the documents (QAA, 2005) that each institution has the responsibility for setting up adequate procedures that assure the academic quality of their programmes according to their internal standards. Although HEIs in the UK might have similar internal quality assurance procedures in terms of their aims, they are set up differently according to their own internal organisation and structure.

Most important is setting out the formal and effective procedures that HEIs should have in place for the approval, monitoring and review of their programmes of study. This is perceived as a way to ensure that standards, quality and the means for quality enhancement are designed in the programmes. Additionally, student feedback and representation strategies that HEIs should consider implementing as part of their quality assurance mechanisms are also of the same importance. However, the review of the documents (QAA, 2000; QAA, 2004) indicates that these precepts presented in the code and with which HEIs should comply are rather general and do not offer specific indication of certain mechanisms to be implemented. In addition, I noticed that they are not presented in a systematic way. I argue that adding systematisation to the code of practice in the UK creates a difference towards enhancement. However, I consider that the precepts are accompanied with explanations and guidance on how these principles could be attained. It is in these further descriptions where it is possible to find the particular procedures which institutions have implemented.

Further attention is given to issue of student and staff feedback and student representation. I noted that although this guidance might not necessarily be applied across all programmes, they may influence how HEIs organise their internal quality assurance arrangements as a whole. This guidance is important as it intends to monitor the quality of the programmes of study to identify strengths and weaknesses, and accordingly to put in place the necessary corrective actions to rectify any identified problems. Although I consider that these procedures are important for HEIs to assure and enhance the quality of their programmes, the implemented procedures lack systematisation. They tend to be a separated element in the current operations of quality in the UK. Because of the lack of systematisation, the implementation of these procedures lack interaction with the other elements characterising quality in the UK. Quality is a system and not only an enhancing mechanism. In this systematic vision, quality is bigger than the entire collection of its sub-systems because it combines all sub-systems plus the interaction created between the components of these sub-systems. This consideration should be taken into account from the operators of quality in the UK.

Reviewing the documents (QAA, 2000) shows that the QAA's Code of Practice states that programmes of study should undergo a review of their effectiveness and also of their validity and relevance. Monitoring the effectiveness of programmes is regarded as a regular process, and usually undertaken by the team in charge of the course. The review of programme validity is periodic, with an aim of evaluating their performance at the end of each academic year. Among the information suggested for consideration in this monitoring process are: external examiners' reports; feedback from staff and students; student progress information; and feedback from former students and employers.

The question that arises here is whether the implementation of quality in the UK is actually contributing to the enhancement of HEIs. Looking at the focus on compliance that external scrutiny has in HEIs and the perceptions of quality operators indicates that quality remains an issue that every higher education institution manages differently. The context reveals no evidence that quality in the UK enjoys systematisation or even based on systematic vision. Biggs (2001) offers a suggestion for quality enhancement to be possible. He argues that HEIs need to remove the internal factors that discourage quality. Among these inhibiting factors,

Biggs highlights three common internal quality assurance procedures that may pose risks for enhancement. These procedures are: external examiners; validation panels; and student feedback questionnaires. Harvey and Newton (2004) argue that the problem with external examiners is that sometimes they are only focusing on assessment without providing an overall review of the processes that lead to assessment. With regard to validation panels, Biggs and Tang (2007) argue that the validation panels tend to discourage innovation as they are usually focused on the content of the programmes. Newton (2007) argues that student questionnaires are frequently measuring the teachers rather than the teaching process, and that students tend to penalise academics using alternative methods. Harvey (2002) gives a further and deeper insight by reporting on the views of quality assurance practitioners. He highlights two major elements influencing the procedures for quality enhancement. First, there is a perception from academic staff that quality assurance is an 'event', specifically oriented to comply with external requirements rather than a process. Second, despite the generalised view that the main benefit of the external monitoring is internal self-reflection, HEIs develop what can be called 'dual self-evaluation', where one is for external consumption and another for internal use, although their contents are not the same. I disagree with Harvey that the major elements for quality enhancement in the UK are the academic perception and the dual self-evaluation. I argue that both of internal and external evaluations are sub-systems and part of the larger system of quality. The problems of quality enhancement in the UK are implied in the operators and not in quality. To date, the operators of quality in the UK do not realise that quality is an overall system combining a set of sub-systems like internal and external evaluation. In addition, quality assurance in the UK is highly dispersed and lacks systematisation. Quality assurance is an overall system that is bigger than the entire collection of its sub-system. This is because it combines all sub-systems plus creating the interaction between its sub-systems. Quality in the different sectors across the UK needs an umbrella system to combine them together in a systematic way. Perhaps a national system for quality can be the solution. In this overall national system, there can be quality in education; quality in health; quality in industry; quality in agriculture; quality in commerce; and quality in other sectors across the country are to be sub-systems of the umbrella national system of quality in the UK.

This tension between compliance and enhancement appears to be the main issue regarding the effectiveness of quality assurance procedures within HEIs in the UK. It is surprising to discover a lack of systematic approaches to address this tension in the literature reviewed. The framework developed by Barnett (1994) constitutes the main theoretical work on the implementation of quality assurance procedures. This framework introduces interesting analysis that represents a valuable contribution to this discussion. Barnett analyses the relation between compliance and enhancement in terms of the main driving forces of the quality assurance procedures in place in HEIs, namely the state and academe. The main point for analysing quality assurance operations is the issue of control. Quality operations are under the control of the state (as an external party to the university) and not owned by the academic community (see section 6.3 of chapter six and see section 7.3 of chapter seven).

The operation of quality in the UK is another issue regardless who coordinates quality. The current form and character of the operations of quality in the UK tend to be bureaucratic, superficial and focused on dispersed indicators in addition to the lack of systematisation and future vision. However, I consider that quality in the UK is driven by institutional managers and an external agency based on professional values and reflection-oriented approach to promote improvements. To identify the character of the process of quality in the UK, the question to ask is: who would be the subject (operator) in quality?

The state of the UK placed quality in the hands of the administrative staff and not in the hands of the academic staff. I recognise the tension in this division as the assumptions that state-owned evaluations tend to be bureaucratic in character and those under the control of the academic community who are more professionally driven are not always true in practice. I argue that it is better for the system of quality in the UK to be harmonised by the academic community. Instead of the bureaucratic procedures, quality may be inconvenience without any beneficial effect on the teaching and learning, research and community outreach and knowledge transfers, which are functioned by academics within HEIs. The academic community, therefore, is in the best position to govern and operate quality in the UK. The harmonisation of administrative staff to quality focuses on control rather than process. This appears academics as the object who receives the actions instead of being the subject who performs the actions. Since academics are the subject in HEIs, they should also be the subject

in the operations of quality. This subject (academics) should be the party who maintains the governance of quality. This means that the subject in higher education should be the subject in its quality. The current state of quality in the UK indicates that the subject in higher education is the object in quality. I argue that the subject in higher education should be the subject in quality. Whether the choice of the UK to enable academics to operate quality or to let administrative staff to continue to operate quality, it is time to envision and harmonise quality in a systematic way. This is what I call **'Systematic' understanding of Quality**.

An important issue of quality in the UK is politicisation (see section 5.7 and section 5.8 of chapter five). Bradney (2001) argues that quality in the UK is linked to the political agenda. I agree with Bradney that quality is not only concerned with improving the quality of teaching within HEIs but also focus on introducing a particular kind of education linked to the political agenda of national governments. However, I consider that this link might differ from country to country depending on the nature of the political regime whether it is democratic or totalitarian. Hodson and Thaomas (2003) point out the reasons for this. They explain that national priorities, ambitions and needs require the balance between institutional autonomy and public accountability moving towards mass higher education of wider student access for advancing performance indicators and graduate employability. I argue that politicising quality should be placed firmly on the political agenda of every country.

Although high ranking countries share common features and operations, I argue that HEIs in the UK are unlike the majority of HEIs in other European countries or in the USA. Literature (Brown, 2000; Floud, 2005) shows that HEIs in the UK are all formally institutions established as charities serving a public benefit. The issue of funding in the UK is more devolved. Documents (RCUK, 2011) indicate that Research Councils distribute public funds for research to HEIs to support research projects which are funded by the government. Reviewing these documents reveals that HEIs in the UK are given block grants for both teaching and research. Funding for teaching is student and subject based but funding for research is quality-driven. The quality of teaching is assessed by the QAA but the quality of research is assessed by the Research Excellence Framework. All HEIs are autonomous to spend the grant according to their priorities. This means that each higher education institution has its own financial mechanisms. Documents (HEFCE, 2008) show that the laws and

regulations in the UK allow HEIs to diversify their sources of funding through different public and private activities. Harris (2011) argues that this freedom created strong competition between HEIs as they are allowed to charge students tuition fees up to certain cap decided by the government.

Most important is that the operations of the UK are equitable and fair in spite of the high tuition fees HEIs charge students. Cheung (2003) points out this equity by explaining that students are given loans for tuition fees and living expenses and these are repayable by graduates through the tax system once their income reaches a threshold of £15,000 per annum. In addition, specific means is dedicated to students from poor families who sometimes exempted from tuition fees and entitled to means-tested grants. In addition, HEIs have bursary schemes and other financial measures such as need-based fellowships. This issue indicates that the UK context has varied developed mechanisms for funding (which is essential requirement for operating quality) ranging between block grants, performance-based funding, competitive funding, tuition fees and income contingent loans.

Weiner (1998) argues that higher education in the UK is getting better with a focus on internationalisation. Cowan *et al*. (2004) agree with Weiner and point out that main characteristics distinguishing higher education in the UK. They argue that higher education in the UK is characterised by: a shift from elite to mass higher education; reduction of financial resources; concern to maintain quality and relevance; concerns about graduate employment; and growing internationalisation of higher education teaching, training and research. As a member country of the European region, higher education is working now to meet the requirements of the European Higher Education Area. This is the main core of Bologna Process. Gvaramadze (2008) states that the European Higher Education Area aims at creating regional recognition of qualifications, degrees and programmes across Europe.

Chapman and Greenaway (2006) argue that higher education in the UK is linked with industry. Court (2004) agrees with them that this link is of vital importance. Whitley (2003) argues that these links provide the environment for innovation and technology transfer and are crucial for sustaining competitiveness, reinventing organisations, creating new businesses, fighting unemployment, and accelerating development programmes. However,

literature (Squires, 1992; Law, 1997; Grady and Pratt, 2000; Watson, 2002a; Watson, 2002b; Grendler, 2004; Salerno, 2004) shows that recently the UK realised its deficiencies in areas of education and technology. Major efforts are being made to enhance the country's international competitiveness. The most recent proposal is for the establishment of a 'University for Industry'. The government has put in place a wide variety of programmes to support science, engineering and technology to enhance its competitiveness at home and abroad, and to enhance technology transfer between higher education and industry.

However, West (2006) argues that higher education in the UK faces significant changes and major challenges. He adds that quality of the curriculum became not only a matter of individual endeavour but also institutional priority and concern in meeting the governmental pressures in a competitive environment. This requires a continuous process of sustainable and professional development. Turner (2004) argues that HEIs need to support creation and enable innovation. He explains this by creating strong and explicit links between the declared strategic plans of institution development, curriculum development and professional development. Greenaway and Haynes (2003) explain the targeted development required from HEIs. They argue that the development of higher education can come through: committing the institution itself to a developmental goal; directing and operating curriculum development to the effectiveness of the tutors on how their practice respond to the intended development; and enhancing processes of staff development for guaranteeing appropriate contribution to this process.

Quality in Egypt faces multiple challenges. It deals with HEIs of severe pressures on funding. Demographic pressures and expansion are among the concerns about equal opportunities. Because quality in Egypt is still under development, the main issues it faces emanates from the issues of higher education such as problems of administrative inflexibility.

Documents (EUN, 2011; EUP, 2011) show that higher education in Egypt is comprised of a wide range of HEIs including: 21 public universities; 17 private universities; 8 Technical Colleges; and 5 higher technical institutes; 96 private higher institutions; and international universities comprising the American University in Cairo established in 1919, the French University in Egypt established in 2002, the German University in Cairo established in 2003,

and the British University in Egypt established in 2005. Additional specialised institutions include the Arab Academy for Science and Technology and Maritime Transport established in 1972 and Egyptian E-Learning University established in 2008.

Although the Government of Egypt invests in higher education, literature (El-Feky, 2006; Kandeel *et al*. 2006; Fahim and Sami, 2009; OECD, 2010; Fahim and Sami, 2011) shows that public higher education spending is still low. Spending on higher education remains low compared to other lower middle income and OECD countries, which is detrimental to the quality of provision. I argue that the expenditure per student is low because of the high enrolment levels in HEIs in Egypt. This means that funding HEIs in Egypt might be inadequate to provide teaching and conduct research of high quality.

Another issue facing quality is the constitution of Egypt. The constitution limits the options available to HEIs for increasing sources of funding. Reports (The World Bank, 2007) show the constitution stresses that higher education should be provided at no direct cost to students. This means that any additional costs are unconstitutional and a violation of citizens' rights. However, there is a current (2012) re-establishment of the Egyptian constitution. Perhaps the change in the constitution happens currently in Egypt may overcome this issue.

Funding is a crucial issue facing quality in Egypt. Reports (The World Bank, 2009) show that Egypt's policy of funding depends on line-item based funding where the budget is spent according to pre-determined categories. I argue that creating new systems of funding might be the solution to address this issue. New system of funding can include cost-sharing funding and competitive funding (see section 5.8 of chapter five).

Holm-Neilsen (2001) argues that competitive funding creates competitive environment. He adds that it prepares academic staff to seek high levels of professional development. I argue that sources of funding should be varied and diverse. However, funding in Egypt is mainly, and perhaps only, governmental. Said (2008) argues that funding in Egypt is centralised with no funding formula for teaching or research. He adds that HEIs cannot negotiate their allocated annual funding. Fahim and Sami (2009) agree with Said's findings by reporting that funding is done directly through the Ministry of Higher Education in conjunction with

the Ministry of Finance and the Ministry of Planning. Fahim and Sami add that these three bodies decide the budgets every year for each higher education institution. Their 2011 study (Fahim and Sami, 2011) concludes that the financial allocations to HEIs are often based on the previous year's allocation with small changes. Although the sector's budget is around 8.5 billion Egyptian pounds, more than 70% of the budget goes to wages. This means that only 30% of the budget is allocated for education costs, which weakens the efficiency of education and, therefore, its quality.

Demographic change is also an issue which adds more pressure on the quality of higher education in Egypt. Fahim and Sami (2011) point out that the number of students entering higher education grew with over 1.3 million students. The higher education student numbers are expected to continue to increase with the increase in population. Reports (OECD, 2010) expect a continuous increasing in demand for higher education to reach 35% by 2021. This means that additional students will need to be accommodated within HEIs. This indicates that Egypt faces a dilemma between the desire to expand the higher education while, at the same time, facing the problem of funding and its consequent threat to the level of quality. Reports (World Bank, 2008) suggest that the Egyptian Government is in need for sustainable diversified resources to finance expansion and improvement in a sustainable manner without compromising quality. This is because quality requires finance.

Equal opportunities represent an issue facing quality in Egypt. Reports (TEMPUS, 2010) show that the increase in private higher education enrolment and the growing segmentation within public HEIs between students who study free-of-charge and those who pay fees in various forms produce serious social disparities related to access to higher education. This issue has negative effects when students become graduates. The labour market would prefer the graduates of high quality institutions. Since private higher education has diversified resources of funding (particularly tuition fees) and enjoys high level of quality, graduates of private higher education have wider opportunities in the labour market than graduates of public higher education (of low quality). Despite progress towards equal opportunities, gender and background inequities still require further efforts. However, I consider that the government follows regulations to attain equal opportunities. Regulations (Universities Regulatory Act, 2009) of higher education show that students are given aid through financial

incentives based on academic merit. Students are offered university catering accommodation for nominal fees. However, these regulations do not distinguish between the poor and rich students as both of them equally benefit from the facilities provided. Creating what I called 'positive discrimination' (see section 5.3 and section 5.4 of chapter five) can improve the life of poor students more as the rich have already their own resources.

Access to higher education and equal opportunities represent two main issues facing quality in Egypt. I argue that free access does not necessarily lead to equal educational opportunities. Fahim and Sami (2011) found that public spending on higher education favours the rich. Said (2008) agree with Kandeel *et al*. (2006) that the poor have less access to higher education than the rich. They explain that this is because enrolment to HEIs is constrained by restrictive grade requirements. Students from rich families have a better chance to attain because they are able to afford better quality secondary education and private tutoring which significantly improves the chances of these rich students receiving high marks on the General Secondary Exam. These findings are confirmed by the reports of the World Bank (2007) which conclude that the opportunities of poor students are low to continue to upgrade to the higher education levels. The report states that while children from the poorest population quintile represent 25% of primary school students, they represent only 14% of secondary school students and represent only 4% of higher education students.

The nature of laws and regulations in Egypt deepens the issue of bureaucracy. Quality is subject to these laws and regulations and therefore bureaucracy. Reports (OECD, 2010) indicate that bureaucracy creates inflexibility and inefficiency in responding to the dynamics quality requires. In addition, the nature of the labour market is changeable and requires flexible regulations. What deepens this issue is that HEIs receive their funding in the form of line-item budget. Said (2008) argues that this mechanism has negative impact on the autonomy and efficiency of HEIs in Egypt. I agree with Said and, therefore, I argue that the Government of Egypt has to find creative solution to this issue and not to imitate solutions from the operations of the high ranking countries. An example of the need to change the laws and regulations is the way the government funds HEIs. In contrast to the UK which depends on varied sources like block grants and tuition fees, funding HEIs in Egypt is done through line item which many studies and reports (Said, 2001, Fahim and Sami, 2009; OECD, 2010)

have recommended replacing this mechanism with block grant type to allow universities more autonomy and flexibility. Some of the solutions I offered are located in section 11.2 of chapter eleven and in chapter twelve.

The laws and regulations (URA, 2009) do not allow HEIs to seek cost-sharing sources like charging students tuition fees. This is because the Egyptian Constitution states that higher education is free. I argue that HEIs in Egypt are in need to create new ways through which they can collect further funding. However, I consider that these ways should be consistent with the laws and regulations. The national government should allow HEIs to generate funds through diversified sources. Some of these include: raising the nominal fees for all students as a registration fee; establishing foreign language programs, where interested students pay for specific types of education; creating cooperation with the wider community like industry for the provision of continuing education to industrial employees; collecting fees for the services the HEIs provide like student accommodation; diversifying the educational products; charging tuition fees for academic programs of high quality; collecting fees for necessary equipment like printing, photocopying and books; raising the tuition fees of open learning; and accepting private donations.

In spite of the multiple issues, notably issues of funding, quality, governance, laws and regulations which are reinforced by issues of massive numbers of students and demographic pressures for expansion, I consider that the subsequent Governments of Egypt engaged with strategies and reforms aimed at enhancing quality. The main issue is the nature of the solution the Egyptian Governments adopts. The solutions of the Egyptian Government are imitated and imported from the practices and operations in the high ranking countries. The solutions should be based on investigation, research and studies. The Egyptian Government needs to realise that each country has its own features, issues and operations. What is successful in a high ranking country might not suitable to be operated in another country. This is because the contexts and the reasons of problems and issues are different. I argue that the Egyptian Government has to depend on conducting investigation, studies and research in dealing with the problems and issues. I mean to depend on creation and not on imitation.

Given the rationale for creation instead of imitation, I argue that systems analysis and design methodology might be helpful to be adopted in such studies if policy makers want to find solutions to the national issues. This is because imitation through investigating the wider international experience of reform shows its failure. Every country has its own policy approach in research and study for finding solutions to their specific issues. Raffe (2011) agrees with me by explaining that the policy approach searches the for context implications and not for transferable experience. He argues that the findings resulted from using policy approach is not suitable to be generalised. Pierson (2000) and Middleton (2000) indicate the reasons for this by stating that policy is meant by the country's own context illuminating its strengths, weaknesses, identifying trends and pressures that affect the national policy, identifying alternative policy options, testing feasibility, understanding processes and dynamics of change, anticipating possible options, and tailoring those policy options to suit national aims, needs and circumstances. I mean the Egyptian Government needs to adopt research-based solutions and not imitation-based solutions.

Kenawy *et al*. (2006) point out that higher education in Egypt grew noticeably through the decade of 1970s until 1980s. Fahim and Sami (2009) found that admissions to universities were curtailed followed by the creation of alternatives in post-secondary technical training as a response to the continued demand for higher education due to an expansion in population. This was preceded by reform efforts aimed at improving methods of enrolments, improving quality of programmes, and promoting responsible fiscal management (Shann, 1992). Quality in higher education is held in high importance and particular priorities in Egypt have included preparing graduates to the work force. Holmes (2008) argues that this development is expected to create more competitive admissions processes and devoting more resources towards higher education with particular emphasis on workforce development and socialisations related to economic development. Due to the current increase in population Egypt witnesses, Mostafa (2006) points out that higher education has seen a massive development over the last thirty years. The Egyptian Government is undertaking current operations in the development of the higher education and its associated structures. The culmination of this development characterising higher education is quality. I argue that operating quality can assist the government to overcome challenges. However, my

consideration is that the Government of Egypt operated quality by imitating it from the high ranking countries and not as a result of investigation, studies and research.

This interprets why Egypt operates accreditation, quality assurance, evaluation, assessment and external review. The Ministry of Higher Education in Egypt imitated the different forms of quality operated in the high ranking countries. In spite of this, Literature (Shann, 1992; Holms, 2008; Fahim, 2011) shows that higher education is still suffering from problems like lack of facilities, low quality of teaching and research, insufficient funding, mass numbers of students, bureaucracy, governmental control, absence of autonomy, lack of accountability and efficiency, out date curriculum, and old teaching subjects.

Richards (1992) argues that policy makers of higher education in Egypt have inherited a difficult historical legacy. He adds that the mass numbers of university students have long outstripped quality. Yet, because of the imperatives of structural adjustment, Khalaf and Said (2003) argue that government spending must fall. They add that funds need to be reallocated within the educational sector. Throughout the 1970s, Shann (1992) points out that the problems facing higher education were recognized. However, he adds that nothing of developmental engagement happened although there were governmental promises to organise enrolments and to adopt other reforms for development. Only in 2000 policy makers finally responded to the increasingly severe crisis in higher educational through conducting a conference for higher education reform strategy. The key problem then was the quality of higher education.

The Government of Egypt committed a mistake by thinking that the solutions of reforming higher education in the high ranking countries can be implemented in reforming higher education in Egypt. Without studies or conducting research, the Government represented in the Ministry of Higher Education imitated quality from the high ranking countries and started to operate it in Egypt. They did not realise the differences even between the high ranking countries in their operations to quality. For example, the UK operates quality assurance but the USA operates accreditation while Australia operates evaluation. The reason why these high ranking countries differ in their operations to quality is that they conducted research and studies first to know which type is best suitable for reforming their higher education.

My experience in Egypt leads me to argue that students of higher education tend to equate 'learning' with 'memorizing'. This leads to produce ill- equipped graduates who increase the numbers of unemployment. Instead of memorising, skills of problem-solving and analysis, creative thinking and innovation are needed in the labour market of the modern world. Higher education in Egypt must proceed in a development to increase people's ability to respond quickly and effectively to the changing technological and market opportunities. This requires promoting interdisciplinary programs with curriculum and teaching subjects that stress problem-solving and applied work.

In theory, literature (Egypt, 2007d; Helal, 2008; LaRocque 2008; The World Bank, 2009; OECD, 2010) indicates that higher education in Egypt is directed to serve the national requirements, ambitions and aims. It is directed to address different dimensions ranging from the basic needs of citizens to human and national development. Egypt's Prime Minister (Nazif, 2006) points out that the reform of higher education is meant to achieve two broad objectives: availability and quality. However and in practice, reports and studies (Egypt, 2000; Galal, 2002) indicate that the higher education is not providing markets with the quality of educated individuals most in demand. Although Egypt has made substantial progress with respect to access to higher education, the reform conducted is mainly quantitative and not qualitative. Access to a high quality higher education is a fundamental human right and is instrumental in fighting poverty, eliminating gender inequality as well as introducing democracy. Enhancing higher education is also the best tool to fight ignorance, dispel hatred, and face terrorism. I argue that higher education development is the cornerstone in the process of driving the national economy forward.

Literature (Rosenau, 1998; White, 2002; Lebovic, 2004; United Nations, 2009) recommends the need for adaptation of the UN to world signified with different features and dimensions. The issue of amendments is of vital importance to keep the UN organisation dynamic to cope with change and challenges. The current existed or future expected global challenges may be pressing in certain circumstances requiring global actions and collective co-operation. Rosenau (1998) argues that there is need for amendments to the UN organisation to be able to deal with a turbulent world signified with different features and dimensions. He identifies

that the UN should engage in new operations of globalising economies. However, Suter (1998) argues that reforming the UN and creating a new document aimed at amending the UN Charter is not really the central issue. He adds that any amendments might be time-consuming and of ultimate little value since the UN's problems are partly due to unwillingness of many governments to honour their commitments under the new reformation. I argue that any micro or macro amendments to the UN organisation must be based on the acceptance of the UN character, structure and Charter.

However, I consider that the constitutive instrument of the UN provides organic framework that governs the orderly deployment of its activities allowing enough latitude for development and change. In spite of this, I see that a constitutive instrument may become strait-jacket hampering further progress and development or may create difficulties (due to the lack of co-operation, communication and understanding) making it impossible to consider and take into accounts the unforeseen visions or future pictures. Within both cases, transformations and amendments for adaptation with new and emerging issues facing the constitutive instrument are to be felt, desired and operated. Important to this change is the role of the UN and UNESCO in systematising systematisation of quality. This requires reforming the operations of the UN and UNESCO (particularly the UN Charter) to assist in this matter.

Reviewing the website (www.un.org) of the UN reveals that any amendments to the Charter shall come into force for all UN state members when they have been adopted by a vote of two thirds of the members of the General Assembly, and ratified in accordance with their respective constitutional processes by two thirds of state members. Documents (United Nations, 2009) show that the UN Charter provides two distinct types of constitutional amendment. The first type is known as ordinary amendment aimed at change and requires no dedicated administrative arrangements. The second type is extraordinary amendment aimed at large scale project connected with a revision of the Charter and requires a dedicated preparation like a conference of the UN member states especially convened for this purpose. I argue that the difference between the two types of amendments is limited and connected to the difference between their initial stages, whereas the material prerequisites and legal effects are basically the same. This is because within both types, quantitative or political factors

involved may affect in determining on the choice of either of them. Ingelheim and Bonn (1994) argue that proceedings of amendments in the UN are carried out via two phases requiring ratifications by the UN member states. The first phase is signified with the adoption of a decision on an amendment by the General Assembly, or by review conference. The second phase consists of the individual ratifications of the proposal for amendment by sufficient number of the member states and extends over longer period of time. However, Leimen (1994) argues that the enumeration of the principal organs is exhaustive in that establishing any additional principal organs requires an amendment to the Charter. Likewise, as they have been created by the charter itself, any change or/and abolishment in composition, functions or powers of any principal organs requires amendment to the Charter. I agree with Leimen because of the case of the two amendments of August 31, 1965 and September 24, 1973 aimed at enlarging the membership of the Security Council and the Economic and Social Council.

Most important is the issue of the UN structure to include a new organisation for systematising the 'systematic' understanding of quality. The UN structure consists of six main organs and many subsidiary specialised committees, agencies and organisations operating around the main organs. Since the very beginning, as Sohn (1956) points out, both of main and subsidiary organs are to create and operate the determination of the UN organisation. He argues that this fact establishes the conditions under which justice and respect for the obligations arising from treaties can be maintained and to assert the power of the UN actions and decisions. Two types of organs distinguish the UN structure. The first type is the principal organs established by the Charter itself and their respective functions and powers are determined by the relevant articles of the Charter. The second type is the subsidiary organs established by particular organisational act of a competent organ of the UN. However, documents (United Nations, 2009) show that the only subsidiary organ established by the Charter itself is the Military Staff Committee which advises and assists the Security Council. Leimen (1994) points out that the general rule is that the enumeration of the principal organs entitles them with equal status in their capacity and does not place them in a hierarchical order. He adds that each of them has and acts according to its own domain of competence. However, reviewing documents (United Nations, 2002a) reveals that one or some of principal organs might be allowed (in certain circumstances) by the Charter to

control the activities of other principal organs. This is interpreted by the position of the General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council and the Trusteeship Council, where the Charter places the activities of the two councils under the authority and review of the General Assembly. This means that creating a new organisation in the UN for systematising systematisation of quality requires reform to the UN structure. I argue that this would activate the UN operations in dealing with the international affairs.

It is now the opportunity of the UN organisation to be at the centre of the international efforts and relations to deal with the unresolved problems of the past decades as well as present and future challenges. A new era has brought new credibility to the UN rising expectations which require taking larger responsibilities and greater roles. A former UN Secretary-General (Boutros-Ghali, 1992) argues that both of the international society and the UN need to expand, adapt and reinvigorate the work of the UN organisation to address global issues signified with greater frequency and growing emergency. In light of global circumstances, it would be wiser to improve the structure of the UN for the benefits of future generations. However, I argue that moving forward for reforming the UN must take into account the different political and ideological stances of member states and interest groups. I agree with Kennedy and Russett (1995) that any reform requires from the governments of member states to be ready to compromise on changes in the UN structure.

Budget and finance represent crucial issue in the UN generally and to fund the operations of systematising the 'systematic' understanding of quality. Documents (United Nations, 2009) show that the task to find an equitable and adequate financing formula and to prepare scale of budgetary assessments is of high priority guided by the General Assembly and carried on by members of the Secretariat under the direction of the Secretary-General. According to these documents, budget procedures of the UN organisation are divided into main categories which include: regular budget; specialised agencies; voluntary programmes related to economic development; and peacekeeping operations. An interesting notice regarding the budget of the UN is that although member states of the low ranking world pay the least, they have the voting power to determine how much should be spent, for what and why it should be. Although the high ranking countries pay the highest, they can be outvoted by the huge

low ranking world majority, as every member state has only one vote in the General Assembly regardless of its contribution to the budget of the UN.

It is the nations' responsibility to make their UN organisation more linear, effective and responsive to their wishes and needs. This means that nations should share hands together for better and stronger finance of the UN organisation. I argue that the UN and the operations of systematising the 'systematic' understanding of quality are the best investment that the world can make. This is because the finance goes for global good like providing highly international quality higher education for all, stopping fatal diseases, feeding the poor, helping refugees and fighting global crime and the spread of nuclear weapons.

I argue that problems related to financing the UN may be due to some member states' non-payment, late payment, withholding payment or/and other reasons. For waving this problem and in addition to member states' payments and contributions to the budget of the UN, it would be helpful to seek creating new resources which may include: private contributions in the form of individual gifts; inheritances and foundation grants encouraged by joint policy of making such contributions deductible from national taxes; charges levied by the UN agencies for services performed; tolls charged for various kinds of transportation and communications; fees for international travel imposed via levies on passports, visas, international trading currency and/or national customs duties; taxes levied on member states collected by their governments based on the ability to pay and judged by national income; taxes levied directly on individuals through the co-operation of member states based on income; charters sold to governmental or non-governmental companies authorising them to use the operation of the outer space aimed at producing revenues via satellites and meteorological systems for future development on the moon and the planets, and to exploit the resources of international water; and any other resources that might be seen adequate.

The issue of achievements and shortcomings of the UN organisation is worth noting. Via investigating its character and structure, I argue that achievements of the UN organisation are too numerous to be counted. Some of these are: the ability to join hands of its member states together over more than sixty year where all countries across the globe come together to share views, ideas and visions seeking the general good of humanity towards better life.

Across its history and until now, the UN assisted and still assist (across the globe to great extent) in: decreasing colonisation; eliminating infringements against human rights, race, sex, religion, culture, and background; eradicating poverty and hunger; defeating fatal diseases; promoting democracy; maintaining peace and security; and envisioning perspectives (via programmes dedicated specifically for development) for global future development creation operations. These and other arguments by Templeton (1998) and Albright (2003) state that among the achievements of the UN are: longevity; universality; human rights; and decolonisation. However, I consider that there are still certain shortcomings related to some issues like: enhancement of international peace and security; arms control and nuclear disarmament; the reputation of bureaucracy and bankruptcy; and the need for constitutional reforms.

For the issue of enhancing the UN generally and to include new body like the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality particularly, Urquhart (1996) argues that reforming the UN does not lack proposals of new visions but the problem is the need to create harmonisation between them. I agree with Urquhart because reform means different meaning to different sectors. For example, for some, reform means to pay members' arrears due to the UN, while it means for others a redress of the imbalance between north and south particularly in the Security Council. However, I agree with Helms (1996) who argues that transforming the UN organisation may represent obvious threat to national interests of certain countries. He adds that the UN needs stark reassessment of its mission and its mandate. I argue that this might be through the help of the Secretary-General via creating bold plan to cut back the outgrown bureaucracy and coordinating costs that are spiralling and then, muster the political will and leadership to implement transforming the UN from being a quasi-sovereign entity in itself to be an institution of sovereign nations.

I consider that any micro or macro amendments to the UN organisation must be based on the acceptance of the UN character and structure. That is why I investigate the character and structure of the UN organisation to state the potential of the UN organisation to include new body like the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for systematising the 'systematic' understanding of quality across the globe. I argue that the UN organisation represents the world peoples' shared hope. To live with dignity, to live in peace and to live

free from hunger and oppression is the UN hope. All over the past years, the member countries of the UN have made much progress in turning this universal hope into universal right for every man, woman and child. This makes the UN adequate to assist in systematising the 'systematic' understanding of quality by including new body like the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. Due to its unique international character and structure, and the powers vested in its founding Charter, the UN can take action on wide range of issues, and provide a forum for its 192 member states to systematise the 'systematic' understanding of quality. This makes the work of the UN reaches every corner of the globe. Although best known for peacekeeping, peace-building, conflict prevention and humanitarian assistance, there are many other ways like systematising systematisation of quality through which the UN would affect our lives and make the world a better place.

## 12.3 Summary of Chapter Twelve

This chapter discussed the research findings. The research reaches the conclusion that there is readiness to create new organisation meant by systematising the 'systematic' understanding of quality within the United Nations. This organisation called the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. The thesis now is ready to move to the research second phase of systems design in the next chapter.

# Phase Two – Systems Design

## Chapter Thirteen

## Systematisation of International Quality and Accreditation of Higher Education in the World

### 13.1 Introduction

The main tasks of the research first phase was to investigate current operations in development of quality across national, regional and world boundaries. This chapter constitutes the research second phase of systems design. The chapter explores the potential state of 'systematic' understanding of quality in a global context. The main tasks of this chapter are to: discuss the feasibility of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality; and theorise establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for the 'systematic' understanding of quality. An explicit analysis follows.

### 13.2 Systematisation of Quality

Transformation from national and regional quality to systematisation of quality operated via the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is initiative created and imposed by investigating national, regional and international orientations, experiences and organisations. This might create positive impacts upon the daily life of citizens and upon social, economic, cultural, political and environmental contexts across the globe. This section explores the 'systematic' understanding of quality in a global context. An explicit analysis follows.

#### 13.2.1 Overview

At the turn of the millennium, current international pressures of business and labour market created the potential for a highly international quality higher education. However, until now

there is no global system meant by creating this balance. Such pressures lead governmental and non-governmental organisations across the globe to pay more attention to be more accountable about the potential for systematisation of quality. The need to compromise between the lack of finance and infrastructure resources and the need to obtain the international recognition and to face strong competitions across the globe created this potential. Adopting the international dimension in higher education's functions while taking into account national cultures, values and circumstances is a current potential of national policies. However, quality has not been politicised yet (see section 5.6 of chapter five). In spite of this, the research investigation reveals a potential to create compatibilities and balances between national development ambitions and global orders. This international potential has now been confirmed UNESCO, the World Bank, OECD, IAU, INQAAHE, GIQAC, and GUNI.

### 13.2.2 The UN and UNESCO

The existence of the UN and UNESCO assists in creating systematisation of quality. The initiative of systematisation of quality is linked to the operations of the UN and UNESCO. This is because the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can apply the policy and practice of systematisation of quality to assist in addressing and achieving UN's projects, programmes, and aims. An example is the United Nations Millennium Declaration (United Nations, 1995; 2000) committing nations to a new global partnership to reduce poverty, improve health, and promote peace, human rights, gender equality, and environmental sustainability. Another example is the project of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (UNMDGs) as part of the international development agenda of the UN for addressing extreme poverty (United Nations Millennium Project, 2005). This project addresses many dimensions including: poverty; hunger; disease; lack of adequate shelter and exclusion, while promoting gender equality, education, and environmental sustainability.

However, addressing and creating the missing international level of quality requires from countries to approve this initiative and accept operating its policy. This means that this policy should be acceptable from the different countries. I argue that the United Nations

Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to be acceptable from countries. This is because it does not infringe their economic, culture, civilisation or religion. However, I consider that for transferring this initiative from theorisation into actualisation, there is a potential for the UN organisation to accept including the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. This is because while this research investigates, assesses and theorises, the actual construction and establishment of a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is the responsibility of the UN.

Systematisation of quality goes in parallel with the nature of the work of the UN and UNESCO. Operating this potential can assist the UN and UNESCO in addressing and achieving the UNMDGs and other global priorities for global future development creation operation. It can also assist in creating global security and advancing means to productive life. This is because the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to be a multidimensional international system. To exemplify this Tsuzuki (2009) explains that pollutants discharges reduction should be targeted to improve the ambient water quality especially after the achievement of the UNMDGs. This is because the sanitation goal in the UNMDGs targets mainly infectious diseases, hygiene health and lifestyle improvement, and several kinds of domestic wastewater treatment methods in the world. Guiding HEIs worldwide to proceed to address such international issues creates potential for internationalisation. However, systematisation requires establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality to govern, harmonise and coordinate systematisation of quality.

### 13.2.3 Global Economy

Epstein (2007) argues that participation in the global knowledge economy has become increasingly important policy imperative in high ranking and low ranking countries. Kim *et al*. (2008) agrees with Epstein and argues that the current picture of the global economy is affected by the global policy. However, they consider that this picture depends on the political context surrounding certain economic context. Investigating the character and structure of the UN leads me to argue that the current global picture creates the ampleness and potential for systematisation of quality. However, certain challenges emerge surrounding

this global picture. Verger (2007) points out that with the GATS and World Trade Organisation (WTO), the future of higher education is as yet not completely known. He states the reasons standing behind this. He clarifies that the correlation of forces between critics of GATS and pro-free trade sectors may tip the scales towards a model of free market educational trans-nationalisation. Although I consider Verger's statements, I argue that the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can map and govern the future picture of higher education worldwide. This is because it is to be an international system meant by the international quality and accreditation of HEIs across the globe.

Kupfer (2008) argues that the relationship between higher education and economy differs according to its contextual level. Ciancanelli (2007) agrees with Kupfer and argues that if a knowledge economy is seen as the current international context in which nations produce their HEIs, this has major implications for production of expert labour and development of new knowledge. An example explains the argument of Ciancanelli is what Kim (2007) points out in that many national governments and agencies (like the UK, France, USA and Canada) have set out new high skills agendas and revised migration policies to attract more skilled human resources. This context is accompanied, as Marginson (2007) shows, with emerging global academic flows and approaches to recognition and quality assurance creating a global market of higher education. This global context raises questions on what ways might the 'systematic' understanding of quality lead to creating national, regional and international economies characterised with highly international quality higher education. I argue that the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can enhance the global economy. Providing international quality higher education assists in creating internationally high-skilled human resources and advances economies (at the same time) for providing internationally high-waged employment (see section 14.3 of chapter fourteen).

The evidence illustrated from these writings illuminates that there is a relation between the global policy and the global economy, and that national governments started to raise the level of skills and knowledge provided in their HEIs. I argue that the missing international level of quality and the current global context create 'systematic' understanding of quality. This can advance the current picture of national, regional and international economy. Creating into existence this new level can increase the power of global economy. This is because it is

to raise the economic openness between countries and expand the size and reach of multinationals for seeking out new markets and workforces creating highly advanced global economy. This means that the current picture of global economy creates 'systematic' understanding of quality.

However, I consider that there are challenges that might accompany this potential. These challenges may be represented in the need for: winning talents; flowing capital; battle for commodities; meeting emerging consumers' requirements; a new map for creation, initiation and innovation to address new risks of new era of global development; and increasing international commitment to an open, stable and equitable global economy delivering high standards of living for all nations.

### 13.2.4 Geometries of Power

Competition between nations is turning from bloody wars to knowledge wars. It is no longer the qualities of individuals and students that are benchmarked, but it is the quality of national education regime which signifies countries' weight on the international scale. This argument is supported by Raar (2009) who points out that self-governance procedures may be now outside geographical jurisdiction. Higher education performs a crucial role in the construction of knowledge societies. This rationalises states' support for higher education. The dimensions affecting higher education in certain country are not any different from the outside world. Under both external pressures (like globalisation) and internal pressures (like changing demographics and maturation of welfare states), Kwiek (2007) argues that higher education has begun to feel, and has to respond to, the full effects of universalisation. He adds that this case assists states to be able to keep their promise with their peoples who have been witnessing the pressures of global forces on national policies.

Naidoo (2005) and Naidoo (2007) argue that higher education is seen by national governments and organisations as one of the most important powerhouses for development. I agree with them because higher education operates currently in a context of burgeoning knowledge economy. HEIs serve to assist their national countries to be able to compete successfully in the global context. However, I consider that this success relies on a number of bases which include: the production of higher value-added products and services; scientific

and technological knowledge; and continual innovation leading countries to leap over developmental stages to improve their positions in the international scale

This knowledge base leads me to argue that providing highly international quality higher education in certain country is strong and positive factor in advancing and increasing its weight on the international scale. This rationalises the 'systematic' understanding of quality. This is because the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can guide HEIs on how to operate to reduce the gaps between nations' classifications on the international scale. The weight of every country on the international scale is identified according to its classification. Because higher education is meant by strengthening the people of its country, the 'systematic' understanding of quality can assist the government of every country to operate highly international quality higher education creating strong country occupying strong weight on the international scale.

The 'systematic' understanding of quality rationalises creating the world level of quality into existence. This level is to increase the power of countries. This is because it raises the level of skills and knowledge among people creating highly strong country which can, then, occupy strong weight on the international scale. However, I consider that certain challenges might accompany the process of creating this level into existence. These challenges are represented in the need for: information transfer; international communication and cooperation; and systematic structure for operating systematisation of quality.

### 13.2.5 Making Peace

Barnett (2008) points out that peace is the equitable distribution of economic opportunities, political freedoms, social opportunities, transparency guarantees, protective security and freedom accompanied with operating justice, democracy, human rights and providing high quality education for people. This means that understanding current developments in peace operations governing, managing, securing and leading the global order is essential in illuminating systematisation of quality. This is because the 'systematic' understanding of quality is linked to the UN organisation. The governance and coordination of systematisation of quality is to be located in the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality which is to be an organisation part from the UN. That is why I investigated the character and

structure of the UN organisation including its peace operations in the work of the Security Council and Trusteeship Council (see chapter ten of the thesis). This investigation supported by the argument of Richmond (2004; 2008) that there is a potential for construction of liberal international order made up of democratic states, leads me to argue that the 'systematic' understanding of quality can assist in making peace. This is because the existence of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can assist in succeeding the UN peace operations across the globe.

However, Gill (1990) and Gawerc (2007) argue that it is still early at the beginning stages to establish frameworks for resolution of wars and building of peace. Although I consider his argument because there is still academic and political contestation over the definition of peace making and peace-building, I argue that it is better to move towards this step now rather than postponing it to future. Envisioning and creating this framework into existence could avoid the world future generations unbearable risks and challenges. Since it is us who live now, it is our duty to think, envision and turn the dreams into realities. This argument is supported by King (2007) who argues that the religions of the world possess considerable seeds for peace-making via education. However, Richmond (2008) points out that there is a pressing problem of how peace efforts become sustainable rather than merely inscribed in international and state-level diplomatic and political frameworks. I consider the clarification of Richmond because there are issues related to the ontology and epistemology of peace, culture, development, agency and structure in terms of peace implications for everyday life. In spite of this, I argue that the existence of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can overcome these issues as it is to be a multidimensional international organisation.

'Systematic' understanding of quality can perform major role in peace-making operations and in peace dissemination among countries and within the country itself. I argue that creating systematisation of quality into existence has the potential to support expert academic initiatives for guiding and assisting the governments of all countries in the pursuit of peace, security, tolerance, welfare and prosperity. This is because the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can guide HEIs across the globe on how they can include their academic programmes adequate content about the culture of peace, tolerance and social

cohesion. This rationalises for a 'systematic' understanding of quality, so as to reduce the tensions between countries that exist now or that which may exist in the future. As higher education is meant by disseminating the culture of peace, the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can assist the government of every country to operate highly international quality higher education to create and generate strong ties between governments and peoples of the globe. This illuminates that the existence of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can advance the global peace. However, I consider certain challenges that may accompany this transformation. These challenges are represented in the need for assistance from national governments, HEIs and the UN and UNESCO to turn the theorisation of establishing a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality into actualisation.

### 13.2.6 Global Challenges

Humanity lives unprecedented age of global change. An example is that validity of higher education qualifications becomes effectively shorter and shorter because of the continuous change in the requirements of the labour market. Kowalski *et al*. (2009) point out that labour market requires wide range of devices and programmes. They argue that labour market has the potential to significantly enhance the quality of education. I agree with them and I add that the creation of this enhancement is based on factors which include the development of education and training in how effectively to use technologies. This requires, as Post *et al*. (2004) and Kowalski (2009) argue, establishing connections, interdisciplinary relationships and new methodologies and scenarios among all technological and scientific branches to face future uncertainties and break down the isolation that might exist in any discipline of higher education. Ozdaml *et al*. (2009) argue that there is a potential for moving towards a more global formula for curriculum development. An explanatory example is what Osmani and O'Reilly (2009) present that there are currently numerous legislative, cultural, financial and technical barriers facing numerous government policies and legislations for building zero carbon homes to help reducing global warming. This means that global challenges require global perspectives. However, Sari and Soytas (2009) argue that most countries will not sacrifice economic growth to decrease their emission levels while some might contribute to emissions reduction via energy conservation without negative long run effects on economic growth. Jun *et al*. (2009) agree with Sari and Soytas and they argue that the security of energy

has steadily been on the increase and is expected to become a major issue over the next decades.

It seems likely that 'systematic' understanding of quality can operate to assist in addressing such challenges. These operations can work through directing higher education's programmes and courses and training professionals and academic staff to prepare students for an active working life, with a view to build, orientate and achieve their full global citizenship. I argue that this development enables individuals to develop skills and abilities that put them in the duty of their national, regional and international society. This also applies to societies, where low ranking countries are to have: well-trained and well-prepared executives capable of applying current development theories and having command of new information, communication and knowledge technologies; and entrepreneurs capable of opening up new visions, perspectives and paths to ensure internationally durable, creative, innovative, proactive, and continuous development. The investigation of chapter five reveals the potential for creating into existence the world level of quality.

### 13.2.7 Different Perspectives

Friedrich and Smith (1998) argue that supporting quality operations are not always persuasive because of the deficiencies existed while using quality procedures. Chong and Calderon (2000) agree with them and argue that operating quality considered successful in certain institution or country might not be successful in another institution or country. They add that opposing quality policies has gained some support. They state the reason for this because quality is extremely costly not only for political stability but also for economic. Although literature (Patrick and Stanley, 1996; Partington and Brown, 1997; Dranove *et al*., 1999; Baiman *et al*., 2000; Poole *et al*., 2001; Cowan *et al*., 2004; Lanf and Zha, 2004; Peters and Hall, 2004; Salerno, 2004; Marette and Crespi, 2005; Poole, 2005) shows that the operations of quality are demanding, I argue that systematisation of quality deserves spending money, time and efforts (see section 5.7 and section 5.8 of chapter five).

Watson (2002b) points out that quality, its creation and development have become a central issue for the public and education sectors. He adds that its importance has been reflected in extensive range of legislation, guidance and policy statements from national governments.

However, I disagree with him that it is unlikely that the sectors will be able to achieve quality culture, even if desired. The way quality has been defined and used since its beginning in 1885, and the way it continues to be applied and developed in the present organisational ethos denote that quality has become a culture not only within HEIs but also across countries and regions. The establishment of internal quality units within HEIs in addition to national agencies and regional networks for quality justifies that quality became an international culture. However, I consider that there is no international system to operate quality as an international culture. That is why this research is conducted to investigate the potential for creating 'systematic' understanding of quality which has the potential to help cultures deal adequately with rapid change. This ensures that change is for the sake of quality/harmony and not just for short term inharmonious benefits to some individuals/regions at the expense of others.

I argue that the 'systematic' understanding of quality does not create bureaucracy. Quality as operation is not the reason of the existing bureaucracy. The main reason is the way the operators operate quality. This means that it is the operators who create bureaucracy and not the operation (quality). However, I consider that quality reinforces and enhances managerial power and control. This is because quality influences policy decisions particularly funding (see section 5.5 of chapter five). This means that the power the quality creates is crucial feature which becomes at best marginal and at worst tokenistic activity with controlling managerial discourse (see section 5.6 of chapter five).

I consider that the current operations of quality focus on performance and measurement and not on development because of the absence of systematisation. The research investigation across national, regional and international boundaries reveals that quality lacks systematisation. Although national and regional operations are governed and harmonised/coordinated by national agencies and regional networks of quality, there is no system to govern and harmonise/coordinate the international operations of quality. That is why this research is conducted. The lack of systematisation makes quality is being after-the-event-activity, which detects faults and failings in service provision. The current picture of quality worldwide reveals that at best, quality identifies possible solutions but does not necessarily directly relate to their remedy. This would appear to be the case, where it provides

recommendations that might or might not be used by HEIs. That is why I consider the argument of Bradshaw *et al*. (1998) that quality is based around the formal documentation of the work processes as an activity based around utility. The research investigation reveals that quality tends to be technical and not political activity applied to all aspects to modernise provision (see section 5.6 of chapter five). That is why I argue that systematisation of quality via the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality should be operated as a system and not as an assessing mechanism.

Supporters (Doherty, 1997; Steinhorst, 1998; Lock, 1999; Visser, 1999; Arrunada, 2000; Steffen, 2002; Peters and Hall, 2004; Davis and Ringsted, 2006; McGuire, 2009) of quality point out that the role of public regulation requires operating quality. This perspective justifies the rules and the functions of agencies of quality and the operation itself since its early beginnings in 1885. Watson (2002b) argues that the managerial colonisation of quality did not occur over night; rather it has been part of a process which has witnessed new management which extends its control and domination (see section 5.6 of chapter five). He indicates that there are two factors governing this. The first factor is the growing influence of management which has been increasingly dependent on its ability to regulate the service through elements of performance management. The second factor is that most developments and change have been externally driven. I agree with Watson in this point because the findings of the research case studies (chapters six and seven) reveal that operations of quality in low ranking countries have been imported from the practices of high ranking countries.

Literature (Bradshaw *et al*., 1998; Pounder, 1999; Piot, 2001; Mollis and Simon, 2002; Watson, 2002b; O'Toole and Meier, 2004; Scherer, 2005; Schmidt, 2006; Helgy *et al*., 2007) shows that operations of quality require revision towards development. It is argued that quality and particularly with its operation towards development need to be revised if they are to be effective. I argue that 'systematic' understanding of quality can create this development. That is why I used systems analysis and design methodology in conducting this research. Although the national, regional and international operations of quality are not systematic, I used systems analysis and design methodology to familiarise policy makers and operators of quality worldwide with the importance of systematisation, and that quality has the potential to be a system and not only an assessing mechanism.

I argue that quality has had considerable impact on institutions since it early operations in 1885 (see section 5.3 of chapter five and see chapter fourteen). However, I consider that quality has led to increasing bureaucratisation and greater proceduralisation and commodification. In spite of this, quality did not create this itself. The findings of the research case studies reveal that it is the operators and not the operations of quality who created bureaucratisation and greater proceduralisation and commodification (see section 12.2 of chapter twelve) I argue that the increase in bureaucracy would appear to be direct response to the need to justify activities through performance measurement, as activity which has generated paper trail to detail and monitor procedures involved within certain task. The improvement of the task has not been helped by the growing proceduralisation. This process is compounded by the fact that many complex tasks have been broken down and simplified to provide performance measures, many of which are more about statistical analysis and accountability than maximising and enhancing service delivery. This is a process that has left staff de-skilled and service provision diluted to meet what is perceived as unnecessary demands for information. Consequently, measuring performance (via systematisation of quality) becomes additional bureaucratic activity. Worse still, the information generated by this activity rarely returns to staff in any shape or form, or if it does, it is to highlight areas for improvement in delivery or practice as opposed to what is working. The initiatives cloaked in the rhetoric of quality are often treated with suspicion by administrative and academic staff who perceive them as leading to greater scrutiny. The implementation of 'systematic' understanding of quality, therefore, depends on a number of factors including how serious the management of the sector is and how willing and able stakeholders are to participate. Most important is that quality cannot do anything with the bureaucratic operators. I argue it is the operators of quality who created the bureaucratic operations of quality. The vision to the relationship between quality and bureaucracy needs, therefore, to be changed to the relationship between operators of quality and bureaucracy. The key of development and the barrier of development are located in the hands of operators of quality and not implied in quality itself.

This argument interprets the indication of the literature (Dougherty, 1995; Watson, 2002b; McGuinness, 2003; Molleman, 2005) that quality is related to empowerment which is not a

reflection act but one imposed from above by the management (operators of quality and not quality itself). It is an activity that operators of quality do. This means that the root cause of the problem is centred in the operators themselves as opposed to the way quality is structured which should be systematic. Quality is an object and that operators of quality are the subject. The operations of quality are done by the subject and not by the object. It is the subject, and not the object, which is responsible for bureaucracy, proceduralisation and commodification seen in the operations of quality. This fact needs to be realised from academic staff and the wider society in general. However, those who are to be empowered are seen as objects, rather than subjects with the power and ability to take control of the situation themselves. This reveals the potential for systematisation in the operations of quality.

Quality is seen in different perspectives. Those who oppose quality argue that it brings bureaucracy to the already existing bureaucracy in HEIs. They continue to comment that quality is about filling papers and consuming money and efforts and that staff involved in its requirements do not gain any feedback for their participation. However, the research case studies reveal that operations of quality have had policy impact on HEIs particularly funding (see section 12.2 of chapter twelve). Beneficiaries from HEIs need to be assured that the service provided in certain higher education institution is of high quality and deserves the money and efforts spent in this institution. They, therefore, have the right to be assured and informed publicly that the degrees and qualifications offered by HEIs are accredited and acknowledged from the related labour market. The employers will tend to prefer to employ the graduates who have successfully completed courses and obtained their qualifications from accredited HEIs than those who graduated from non-accredited institutions. This disseminates the culture of systematisation of quality, the matter which has positive impact on economy and society. This is because the conformance between skills and knowledge of graduates to the stated requirements of the labour market leads to advancing the profits of the employers and raises the wages of the employees.

### 13.2.8 Adequacy

The previous analysis in section 5.4 indicates how the UN and UNESCO operate, and discusses their character and structure in addition to clarifying certain issues for further and future enhancement. Generally, a system literally means some kind of connected whole with

internal rules of operations and continuity interacting together (Wallerstein, 2004). The UN organisation is a collection of organs and subsidiary agencies that are interrelated and interdependent and working together to accomplish predetermined aims and objectives. Analysing the character and structure of the UN and UNSECO produced rich discussion and rigorous analysis about their current operations. The analysis and discussion reveal how the UN and UNESCO are organised and operate for achieving aims, functions and activities of global nature. The character and structure of the UN and UNESCO entitle them to assist in creating 'systematic' understanding of quality. This is because the UN and UNESCO are like no other across the globe. They have character, structure and abilities of global influence. The vast majority of countries are members in the UN and UNESCO. This is because the UN and UNESCO are the most acknowledged organisations internationally with global aims, functions and activities. This facilitates the international acceptance from these countries to the policy and practice of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. I argue that the current character and structure of the UN and UNESCO seems to be adequate to include new body like the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. Systematisation of quality requires international adoption, assistance and supervision from a body like the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality which is to be included in the UN organisation. This rationale, therefore, indicates the potential of the UN and UNESCO to assist in creating systematisation of quality through including body like the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for governing and coordinating systematisation of quality and providing the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe.

This reveals the adequacy of the UN and UNESCO for including organisation like the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for operating 'systematic' understanding of quality. This comes as a response to international initiatives generally and the research clarifications within this phase particularly. The current part of the research suggests that quality is adequate for systematisation, and that international organisation like the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is required working in parallel with national agencies and regional networks of quality. This is because the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to be in addition to and not an alternative of national agencies and regional networks of quality. This means that the world has national,

regional and the world levels of quality. While national agencies of quality are meant by the national level of quality and that regional networks of quality are meant by the regional level of quality, the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to be meant by governing and coordinating the 'systematic' understanding of quality and to provide the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe.

I argue that the character and structure of the UN and UNESCO have nature of the evidence, proof of the adequacy, and characteristics of the methodology to assist in creating systematisation of quality via including the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to be multidimensional organisation to assist in addressing global issues. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can create and generate multidimensional and new form of highly international quality higher education to work and address in parallel with, and understand international needs, goals, orders and values. Systematisation of quality is to be mediated through establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality to collaborate with national states, regional networks and international organisations across the globe on how interests and motivations for creating life development generally and highly international quality higher education particularly could intersect with, and driven by powerful global construction of values and techniques operating via the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. This multidimensional international system leads to a global future development creation operation.

As multidimensional international system and for global future development creation operation, the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to be an appropriate initiative and system through which an international dialogue is to be conducted in order to discuss in parallel, and address more systematically the need to balance (in case of any contradiction) between national ambitions and global priorities and orders. The validity of this assumption rests on the successful provision of the character and structure of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality.

## 13.3 Design of Systematisation of Quality

Purpose of the research second phase is to complete the worldwide building of quality by creating systematisation of quality so as to create international 'systematic' understanding of quality in the world. It is also the completeness of systems analysis which helps the creation of systematisation of quality. Systems analysis and design generated conclusions around the potential for establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for governing and operating 'systematic' understanding of quality.

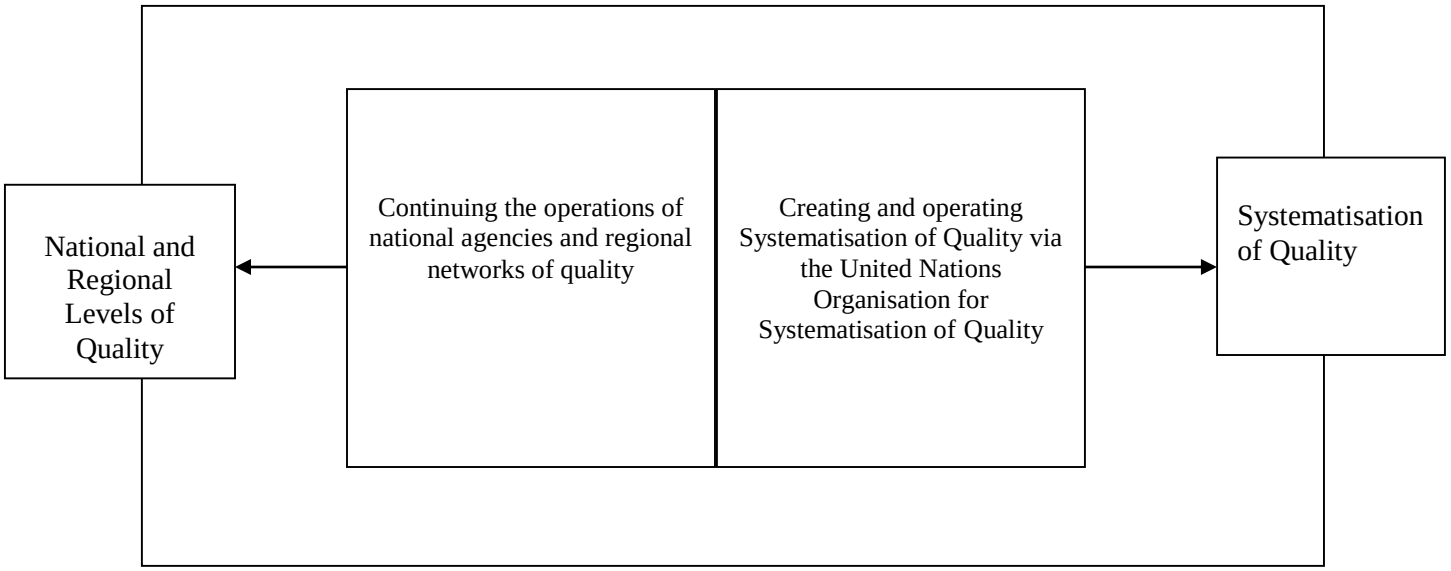
It is worth noting that this section clarifies central significance to project of theorisation of enhancement in systems analysis and design that was set out in sections 4.4, 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, and 4.8 of chapter four. However, crucial proposition in this chapter envisions new application of the research methodology for creating 'systematic' understanding of quality operating via establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. Although chapter four generally and section 4.3 of chapter four particularly elaborated literature on systems analysis and design, none of it can be inserted into the thesis methodology at this point because all types of systems enhancement require pre-existing system to enhance. But with the case of this project, there is potential to create new international system (the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality). As a result of this potential, the research uses new application of the research methodology for fulfilling this gap. The knowledge contribution set out at this point is entirely new. The contribution has been created after conducting this investigation drawn on the rationales set out through documentary and empirical analysis in the thesis.

Theorising design of establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality emanates from findings of the research first phase (chapters 2 - 12). The main tasks of this phase was to: investigate analysing current operations in the development of quality across national, regional and international boundaries; assess nature of the evidence that current operations of quality are, or are not, adequate for internationalisation; and assess whether the UN and UNESCO can assist in creating 'systematic' understanding of quality. Because the research first phase demonstrated potential for systematisation of quality, the research now in the second phase of systems design is directed to articulate theorisation for establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. This theorisation is the research soft creation while hard creation of establishing the United

Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is responsibility of the UN organisation. The main tasks of the research second phase are to: constitute rationale for, and feasibility of creating and operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality (see section 1.2 of chapter one); theorise establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality as multidimensional international organisation within the structure of the UN for governing and operating systematisation of quality (see section 5.7 and section 5.8 of chapter five); and envision the future of systematisation of quality (see chapter fourteen).

The task here seeks to produce theorisation for creating new and original international system of 'systematic' understanding of quality. This theorisation is modelled here for the first time because it is not in the existing literature. This type of application systematises and coordinates the creation from none. It is to be operated when there is potential to establish new system. All types of enhancement set out in section 4.8 of chapter four depend on existing system (systems analysis) which is to be enhanced (systems design). The new model this section of research comes up with is to establish case for creating and operating systematisation of quality via establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality which did not exist previously. The philosophical stance underpinning this methodological innovation is the creation from none, where the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is created to work side by side with existed national and regional quality. This new creation is 'systematic' understanding of quality in the world. The ontological stance of this application is creationism. The epistemological stance is the potential. This new application coordinates and systematises the research soft creation. Currently, there are two levels of quality operated via national and regional boundaries. The research coordinates and systematises the creation of the international level. The following figure depicts this application in this phase of the research.

Figure 11: Systematisation of Quality




## 13.4 Envisioning the Design of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality

This section elaborates the design application of establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. An explicit design follows.

### 13.4.1 Philosophy

Literature (Badley, 1998; Parr, 1998; Hoecht, 2006; Brok, 2007; Andresen, 2008; ESIB, 2008) shows that the first start of quality and accreditation in the world was in 1885 in New England, the USA under guidance of Harvard University, which was proponent of applying standards to schools and colleges to assure quality. Originally, quality consisted of applying prescribed standards and incorporating plan for continuous improvement. By 1900, peer reviews became specialised programmatic accreditations for such fields of study like medicine and science. By 1920, the process moved from programmatic reviews to institutional reviews. Thereafter, accreditation agencies were formed to cooperate autonomously within single methodologically consistent regime. Further alignment of accreditation agencies occurred after the World War II through development of accreditation standards which all members must fulfil and through widespread agreement that member

institutions need to align actions to their proclaimed goals and intentions. The last few decades have witnessed increase in initiatives of national governments towards establishing agencies of quality. As universities, colleges and education institutions grow in size, number and diversity a multitude of quality agencies have been established, and/or reformed to ensure quality is maintained – and developed – at the individual level, programme level, school level, university level, national level, regional level and the world level. Over time, quality became systematisation. Today, my Doctorate comes to the conclusion that quality is an open systematisation combining set of sub-systematisations to accredit quality of HEIs.

In my interpretative approach, the Doctorate approach of systematisation of quality is based on creationism. This ontological view is based on the assumption that the study of creationism is the creation from none. I used an interpretative approach to my qualitative Doctorate because I want to create from none. The literature reveals evidence that this is the first study to investigate the creation of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. The ontology stimulating the philosophy of my Doctorate comes in a time that many nations have established agencies for quality. However, my Doctorate proved that there is a gap between the nature of quality in the developed countries and that in developing countries. Section 11.2 of chapter eleven reveals that quality has been established in the developed countries due to investigation and studies. The developing countries imitated operations of quality and implemented them to enhance their HEIs. However, up to now quality has not been systematised yet. Neither developed countries nor developing countries systematised quality. This Doctorate is, therefore, there to create philosophy of systematisation of quality.

The absence of systematisation of quality in addition to the negative aspects represented in randomness resulting from this absence are also factors to create philosophy of ‘systematic’ understanding of quality. Quality across the globe lacks systematisation. There is no ‘systematic’ understanding of quality in the world. This is a global ontological problem which is not only represented in the absence of ‘systematic’ understanding of quality but also the negative effects resulting from this absence particularly on developing countries. If this philosophical problem continues to exist, there will not be ‘systematic’ understanding of quality in the world. In addition, the gap between the quality of higher education in developed

and developing countries will continue to exist too. The research final stage of the systematisation process creates the philosophy of 'systematic' understanding of quality. This philosophy fulfils the building of quality worldwide by creating 'systematic' understanding of quality. This philosophy overcomes the negative aspects resulting from the current global ontological problem of randomness of quality and the absence of 'systematic' understanding of quality particularly on developing countries.

To create the philosophy of 'systematic' understanding of quality, I established, as Ritchie and Lewis (2003) explain, a rapport between the participants and myself. This rapport is the subjective evidence to create the philosophy of 'systematic' understanding of quality. The objective evidence to create this philosophy has been generated from the naturally occurring data in documents and the broader academic literature. This allows me to create the philosophy of 'systematic' understanding of quality in a consistent and coherent manner. This epistemological view is based on the assumption, as argued by Crotty (1998 and 2003), that knowledge is the result of the relationship between the knower and the known.

Although the literature lacks a theorisation for the philosophy of quality and focuses mainly on its operations, through reviewing some literature of philosophy in general (Lee and Sirgy, 1999; Miscevic, 2006) I can argue here for a philosophy of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. I argue that the philosophy of this proposed UN organisation is to make from quality a public good. This is to ensure that the fundamental duty of quality is life development in general to create high quality higher education available for all on the basis of merit without discrimination. The proposed UN organisation is to enable quality continuously to meet the needs of citizens and orientate them not only to be reactive and evolve upon, but also to be proactive and create general development changes that interest people and their life. By implementing this philosophy, the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality attains the development of the world.

Creating philosophy for the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is something new that did not exist before in the field. Creating a philosophy for this proposed UN organisation advances the possibility for creating 'systematic' understanding of quality in the world. This philosophy envisions quality as systematisation and not only as an

enhancing mechanism. However, I consider that the creation of this philosophy requires establishing science of systematisation.

### 13.4.2 Mission

The mission of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to ensure governing systematisation of quality in the world. This is to assure continuous development and efficient performance of HEIs across the globe. This includes HEIs and their programmes in accordance with their mission statements and aims. This assists in getting confidence of the international community in graduates. This mission requires qualified and competent human and material resources. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to apply its mission via operating international accreditation through independent, neutral and transparent systematisation.

### 13.4.3 Role

Role of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to promote systematisation of quality including contribution to quality of teaching and learning, research and community outreach and knowledge transfer. This role is to encourage improvement in academic standards and quality of learning opportunities.

The proposed United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to facilitate development and application of international reference standards and support countries and their HEIs in development of internal and external systems of systematisation of quality. This can be achieved via establishing system for reviewing and accrediting HEIs which meet the international published standards. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to be primary means by which HEIs assure international quality to all those who can benefit from higher education across the globe. It is signal to students and the public that HEIs and their programmes meet the declared international standards indicated by the proposed United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. Obtaining international accreditation of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to be required for access to funding particularly the public, and to denote that HEIs and their programmes have international trust, reputation and accreditation. The accreditation of

the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality to HEIs and their programmes is to be important to employers when evaluating credentials of job applicants, and when deciding whether to provide tuition support for current employees seeking additional education. This is because individuals and foundations are to look for evidence of systematisation of quality when making decision about private giving. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to be important to students and HEIs. This is because it helps them to transfer courses and programmes among HEIs across the globe. For example, receiving institutions take note of whether or not the credits a student wishes to transfer have been earned at accredited institution by the proposed United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. The proposed organisation is to be viewed carefully and is to be considered as important indicator of international quality by receiving institutions.

### 13.4.4 Functions

The proposed United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to operate to perform different functions. As a minimum, these functions include creating international guidelines and standards for assuring and accrediting the quality of higher education across the globe. This can be done through harmonising and coordinating the international accreditation to HEIs, programmes and/or agencies of quality which request international accreditation. However, this requires establishing framework for processes of performing international accreditation. Most important is that it fosters better understanding of higher education through the dissemination of international accreditation results to inform the public about the international case of quality of HEIs. This is because of making assurance that standards used in performing the international accreditation are thorough and valid internationally. This creates the global commitment of higher education. In addition, this organisation can create following-up activities and news of international accreditation and the international case of higher education, and promote creation and innovation covering different disciplines, careers, and areas of knowledge.

### 13.4.5 Principles

The proposed United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to operate in light of main principles. As a minimum, some of these principles include providing services to the international society. This guarantees that during the process of its international accreditation, the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality respects the nature and legal regulations of HEIs and national agencies and regional networks of quality and any organisations or governments. This can be achieved by its experts and governing roles. Most important is that this organisation is to act in ethical manner. This means that it must be objective in decision of its international accreditation and in the verification of its aims. Decisions of its international accreditation are to be made in agreed manner. This makes its aims, mechanisms, operations, results, administration and sources of funding transparent, and fosters the assurance of trust through the integrity of its procedures and results. In Addition, it informs the international society and the global labour market about accredited HEIs, programmes and/or agencies of quality.

### 13.4.6 Features

The development of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to support creating systematisation of quality. As a minimum, the main features of this development include that HEIs are responsible for meeting standards identified by the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality directed to assure the quality of HEIs and their programmes complying with the international standards. This means that HEIs and national agencies and regional networks are to provide information for purposes of international review from the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to develop international framework for systematisation of quality which supports enhancement and provides evidence-based qualitative information. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to assist national agencies and regional networks of quality and HEIs particularly in low ranking countries to develop their operations of quality. The international accreditation of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality involves internal and external review processes. The international peer review is dedicated to: reach evidence-based judgements internationally; develop international reference standards for ‘systematic’ understanding of quality to inform HEIs and other partners and beneficiaries; work as international clearinghouse on the ‘systematic’ understanding of

quality; develop guidelines on how international reference standards can to be adopted and achieved; and publish international reports on its operations of the 'systematic' understanding of quality.

### 13.4.7 Values

The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to work according to specific values. As a minimum, some of these values include thorough, where the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality carries out all its audits as thoroughly as possible. Supportiveness is another value as the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality recognises institutional autonomy in setting objectives and implementing operations to achieve them as the proposed United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality acts to facilitate and support this. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to operate flexibly to acknowledge and reinforce institutional diversity. This means that the organisation recognises that in any higher education institution, achieving quality depends on commitment to quality within institution itself. Cooperation with HEIs and national agencies and regional networks of quality is essential to achieve these values. The procedural system of The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to be open to public scrutiny, and operates to keep financial demands it places on HEIs and national agencies and regional networks of quality as low as possible. It is to report publicly and clearly on its findings on HEIs and national agencies and regional networks of quality.

Most important is that the philosophy and methodology of the proposed United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality are to be clear, transparent and built on sound aims. The built-in safeguards and policies ensure that the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality does professional international job. Within HEIs and national agencies and regional networks of quality, there will be policies and practices on the roles and responsibilities of the board of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. Therefore, training strategy for auditors and their involvement in activities of the international accreditation are among the responsibilities of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. This requires that the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality must have strong collaboration and net-work efforts. It is to

perform significant role in strengthening networks with HEIs and national agencies and regional networks of quality. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to work to improve quality enhancement from being only national and/or regional to be international. In addition, the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is not only to provide the international accreditation to HEIs in the world but also works as multidimensional international organisation within the UN for addressing global needs.

### 13.4.8 Benefits

Operating 'systematic' understanding of quality is expected to have benefits at different levels. Implementing 'systematic' understanding of quality is expected to create: impact of growth in economy that is attributable to graduates production from institutions and programmes accredited from the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality; job creation by better trained graduates; direct investment of international prestige; additional income through improved accountable funding; reduction and/or elimination of the cost of industry to retraining graduates; improved academic facilities in HEIs; attraction of grants and donor support which can be made available to institutions and programmes accredited from the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality; income from students who are only attracted to institutions and programmes accredited from a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality; opportunities for attracting investment; evolution of culture of quality; and promotion of international competition and academic excellence.

There are many benefits emerging from establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for national governments, societies and employers. Systematisation of quality enhances transparency and provides information and makes HEIs accountable to societies and partners and beneficiaries. Operating 'systematic' understanding of quality can provide protection against low quality education and fraud via creating culture of systematisation of quality in HEIs worldwide. This leads to enhance higher education. Via systematisation of quality, national governments can ensure that higher education provided is in line with government policy. For agencies of quality, establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality adds new international level to the current existing national and regional levels. For HEIs, establishing the United Nations Organisation

for Systematisation of Quality grants international legitimacy and accreditation to their operations and qualifications. Operating systematisation of quality facilitates international recognition of national and cross-border degrees. Thus, the 'systematic' understanding of quality can be international system for decision making in institutional strategic planning. Operating 'systematic' understanding of quality increases mobility of academic staff, students and employees across the globe. For students, a United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can operate to protect students from fraudulent programmes and institutions. Creating 'systematic' understanding of quality assists students in choosing the most suitable HEIs as the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality ensures that appropriate education is being delivered in terms of programme content, facilities and services.

### 13.4.9 Expected Difficulties

Establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality may face certain difficulties. Some of these difficulties may be related to HEIs, national agencies and regional networks of quality, national governments or these related to the way the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is operated. HEIs may see the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality as interference with their autonomy. International standards may be seen as a way of limiting institutional activities. They may face incomprehension and resistance from academics. This is because not all HEIs (particularly in low ranking countries) have systematised databases. There is risk that HEIs might not be transparent when they provide necessary information. However, the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is systematisation for international quality enhancement rather than formal mechanical operation. I consider that operating systematisation of quality involves heavy workloads for participating institutions in preparing documentations, databases and any other requirements. For national agencies and regional networks of quality, operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality requires qualified personnel to undertake 'systematic' understanding of quality. National agencies and/or regional networks of quality may see the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality as not always be independent or objective. In addition, national agencies and/or regional networks of quality do not always operate completely independently from governments and may sometimes lack credibility from HEIs.

The extensive use of international reference standards in comparison with national ones may make it difficult to contextualise systematisation of quality. Private agencies of quality do not always put public international interest above private interest as some private agencies may be fraudulent. Most important is communication difficulties between agencies in agreeing on international accreditation. For national governments, there might be lack in understanding systematisation of quality. The process of operating 'systematic' understanding of quality may lead to brain drain in low ranking countries as there will be need for experts and academics who will assist in operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. There is also need for financial support from national governments to assist in operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. 'Systematic' understanding of quality may be seen as bureaucratic, complex, costly and time consuming. Creating international standards is demanding. The process requires high level of transparency in the accreditation process, in standards and indicators used. 'Systematic' understanding of quality may require time to be clear enough as it may be understood in different ways in different national and regional settings. The connection between the 'systematic' understanding of quality and quality of HEIs might not be applied to HEIs that are growing and these in low ranking countries. Academics may require time to believe in credibility of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. There is risk that the 'systematic' understanding of quality might become an aim in itself. This is because there are no studies of the impact of systematisation of quality on quality of HEIs and programmes. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality requires, therefore, to be understood internationally in the same way by HEIs, national agencies and regional networks of quality, national governments and any other partners and beneficiaries.

Operating 'systematic' understanding of quality faces challenges from different levels. Many countries particularly low ranking countries do not have operations for quality which can facilitate dealing with the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. Some challenges are: funding to carry activities of international accreditation; lack of accreditation framework for open and distance learning programmes; absence of accreditation for cross-border higher education, multiplicity of accreditation bodies, lack of accuracy of on-going

revision of minimum academic standards; lack of well-established institutional framework; low institutional capacity; and probability of subjectivity of some assessors.

### 13.4.10 Recommendations

For overcoming difficulties of establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality, certain recommendations require to be taken into consideration. Systematisation of quality should be carried out based on systematisation. This means that HEIs should maintain accessible database of 'systematic' understanding of quality. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to disseminate knowledge among HEIs and programmes regarding the benefits of the 'systematic' understanding of quality. HEIs, therefore, should be informed of the nature and content of similar programmes taught elsewhere both nationally and internationally for continuous quality enhancement. The 'systematic' understanding of quality is to focus on creating specialists to achieve good results. It is essential that autonomy of HEIs should be respected. This requires that public funding should be increased to enable HEIs to meet requirements of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. Most important is that the outcomes of operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality should be transparent and information should be accessible to society. Public and social needs should be reflected in accreditation of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality, therefore, should take into account national differences.

Operating quality of teaching and learning, research and community outreach and knowledge transfer within HEIs across the globe to serve achieving national, regional and international needs, priorities and ambitions is one of the core results of this research. The research suggests rationale and feasibility of establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the structure of the UN for governing and systematising systematisation of quality. Realising the rationale, feasibility and learned lessons from the research first phase indicates that there is potential for creating and operating systematisation of quality via establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality

for systematising the ‘systematic’ understanding of quality in the world and for providing the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe.

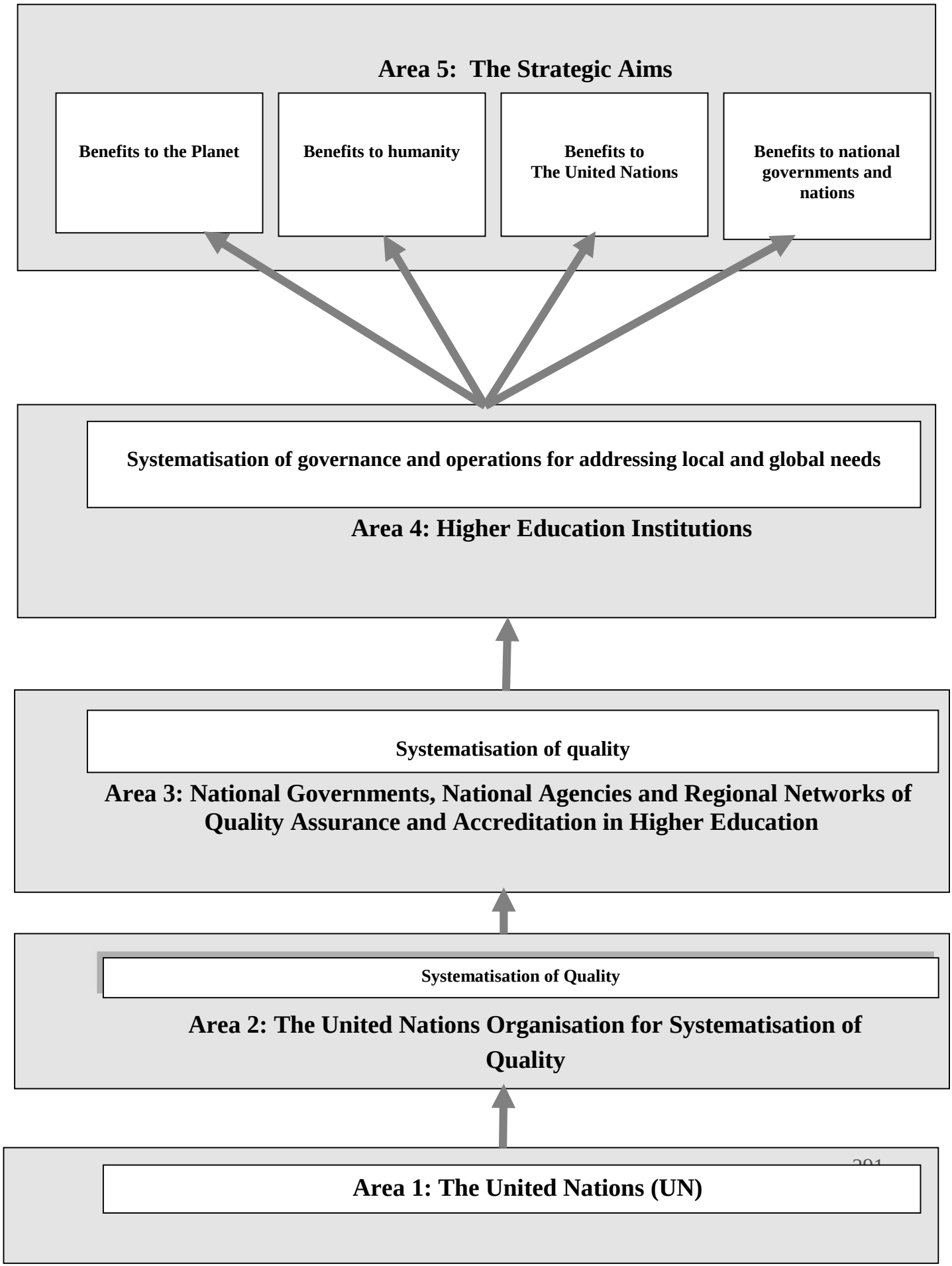
### 13.4.11 Funding

The proposed United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality will be funded primarily from the UN organisation and from annual dues from member countries. As source of additional funding, any higher education institution or programme seeking international accreditation has to pay fees for the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for accreditation reviews. In some stances, the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality may receive financial assistance from sponsoring organisations. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality may sometimes obtain funds for special consultation, guidance, assistance and/or invitation with governments or private foundations.

### 13.4.12 Governance and Systematisation of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality

The governance and systematisation of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality require combining and bringing together greatest geniuses, experts, academics and leaders from across the globe based on quality and not quantity or representation to identify and elaborate the pressing global needs theorising, planning, systematising, operating and executing policies and operations of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality and its standards for performing its international accreditation. This combination of experts and academics is to create and generate web of ideas, networks of influence, policy frameworks and practices, financial arrangements and organisational structures, system of global power relations on how the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality should be constructed. The following figure depicts the governance of systematisation of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality.

Figure 12: Governance of Systematisation



The international accreditation of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for HEIs and/or programmes is to take place in cycle that may range from every few years. A higher education institution and/or programme seeking international accreditation is/are to go through number of steps stipulated by the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. These steps involve combination of several tasks which include: preparation of evidence of accomplishment by institution or programme; scrutiny of evidence and site visit by experts from the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality to institution and/or programme seeking the international accreditation; and action to determine accreditation status by the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. Most important is that operations of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for conducting accreditation are to follow the following procedures.

**Application:** At this stage, the higher education institution and/or programme is/are to apply for the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for obtaining international accreditation. Higher education institution and/or programme is/are to pay fees and accept procedures and operations identified by the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality.

**Self-study:** The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality requires from the higher education institution and/or programme seeking international accreditation to prepare written summary of performance based on accrediting standards of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality.

**Site visit:** The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to send visiting team from its experts to review the higher education institution and/or programme seeking international accreditation. The self-study represents the foundation for the site visit. It is accreditation review for reviewing the self-study. Experts serve as visiting teams that review the institutions and/or programmes once the self-study has been completed. Experts constitute the members of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality that makes judgements about accrediting status.

**Judgement:** The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to have decision making commissions. These commissions may: affirm international accreditation for institutions and/or programmes; reaffirm international accreditation for ongoing institutions and/or programmes; or deny/withdraw international accreditation for institutions or programmes.

**Periodic external review:** The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to continue to review HEIs and/or programmes seeking the international

accreditation over time. They are to normally prepare self-study and undergo site visit each time.

**Sustainable development:** The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to continue in self sustainable development as its accreditation is of international trust, standards, evidences and peers.

## 13.5 Summary of Chapter Thirteen

The chapter generated a theorisation for establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. The thesis by this chapter folds its pages to the end by discussing the future of systematisation of quality which is presented in the next chapter.

# Chapter Fourteen

# Impact

## 14.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the impact of the thesis by discussing the future of systematisation of international quality and accreditation of higher education in the world. An explicit analysis follows.

## 14.2 Future of Systematisation of International Quality and Accreditation of Higher Education in the World

The future development of systematisation of quality is to be directed to achieve aims and benefits to the UN, national governments and countries, humanity and other creatures and the planet. Delivering systematisation of quality via establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for governing and operating 'systematic' understanding of quality assists in meeting local and global needs, and provides the international accreditation, trust and reputation for HEIs across the globe. Attaining the future vision of 'systematic' understanding of quality is beneficial to: the UN via succeeding its aims and programmes; national governments and countries via providing highly international quality higher education of new responsibilities and available for all generations on the basis of merit without discrimination; humanity and other creatures via envisioning global future development creation operations; and planet via bringing together the greatest experts, academics and leaders from across the globe for conducting continuous international meetings and dialogues dedicated for discussing planet needs and priorities. Via its international accreditation, the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to encourage guiding and assisting HEIs across the globe on how to operate in a way that assists in advance succeeding the policies and practices of national governments generally and these of the UN particularly.

The future of systematisation of quality is to assist in succeeding and creating many local and global advances. Directing this future for meeting some of these advances would create: world where more than 300 million will no longer suffer from hunger; world where lives of more than 2 million mothers and 30 million children are expected to be

longer and longer; world where safe drinking water for another 350 million people and sanitation for 650 million are available; world where hundreds of millions more women and girls will lead their lives in freedom; attaining hopes of people seeking new opportunities to end the burden of grinding poverty; and world where humanity generally and low ranking nations particularly have resources to build operating hope and security to meet needs of justice, democracy, human rights, health care and provide the world with citizens who are literate, healthy, able to work, prepared and qualified.

The picture of systematisation of quality indicates potential for future development focusing on qualitative factors. A brief illustration covering the different dimensions required for future development follows.

- Guiding national governments on the rationale for creating new resources to assist in financing the requirements of strengthening their HEIs.
- Directing and operating quality of teaching and learning, research and community outreach and knowledge transfer within HEIs to serve achieving the global needs, priorities and ambitions.
- Higher education is the brain of nations and the future of generations. This sets an obligation on HEIs to serve fundamentally local and global needs. Systematisation of quality should be directed to assist HEIs in meeting these needs.
- Disseminating knowledge on 'systematic' understanding of quality worldwide, particularly via new system that can cover the 'systematic' understanding of quality generally and the requirements of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality from HEIs to advance implementing their conformance to these requirements. Teaching systematisation of quality within these institutions may assist in creating this advance.
- As international organisation, it would be appropriate if the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality consulted the different sectors across the globe knowing their future development plans, and operated as facilitator guiding HEIs on how they can behave in way that assists in meeting the requirements of attaining these plans.
- Establishing programmes within HEIs to provide qualifications in quality like BA, MA, PhD and/or any other required qualifications that potential to might arise in the future so as to create science of quality in all fields of knowledge.
- Investigating whether the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is ready for future development focussing on standards as well as on

processes. This is to suggest enhancing its systematisation to be multidimensional organisation meant by assuring and accrediting the quality of every sector and corner in the globe, where society quality is to be created and operated.

- The suggested multidimensional organisation should be directed to address advancing the means to productive and prosperous life. In this planet, life is a whole system that is bigger than the entire collection of its parts. This entire system combines a set of sub-systems in addition to creating the interaction between components of sub-systems. Education is only sub-system. Life on Planet is ready to systematisation. This requires to focus mainly on advancing education without considering other advances within other sub-systems is probably not efficient as certain barriers and deficiencies existed in other sub-systems are to have negative impacts on the advances being done in education sector.
- Although higher education is about knowledge and research, delivering knowledge to learners and extending that knowledge through research, students should learn to create new knowledge and not only to know that is being taught to them. What is being taught should be directed to assist in creating new knowledge and not to consider it as the only and final knowledge.
- Creating global anthem and preparing students to be not only qualified but also believe that global priorities are always first when personal and private interests and priorities contradict the global ones.
- Creating and operating new philosophy of higher education aimed at systematisation of life on the Planet.

Creating systematisation of quality addresses what appears to be is missing to complete the entire building of systematisation of quality worldwide towards systematisation. I suggest that establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality could be expected to have key outputs on, or influences over the three main spheres of economics, politics and society worldwide. The proposed new international system is designed to provide international accreditation, trust and reputation to the qualifications of HEIs across the globe. This creation puts the final stone in the worldwide building of quality. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality creates systematisation of quality in the world and adds the international level for encouraging HEIs to address global issues and requirements. The new ‘systematic’ understanding of quality is to be dynamic creating short and long chains of cooperation and communication although the hierarchy in the operations of the United Nations Organisation for

Systematisation of Quality is still existed via passing by requirements of contact across the levels of ‘systematic’ understanding of quality (individual, programme, department/faculty, institutional, national, regional and the new world of systematisation of quality).

The theoretical rationale and feasibility of establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality emanates from the research first phase (systems analysis). The generation of this theoretical exposition is based on themes of economics, politics and society constituting my own model. An explicit analysis follows.

## 14.3 Global Economy

Complex links and issues cover the relationship between higher education and national, regional and international economy. Such context requires creating means to advance life development in general. Analysis of these means follows.

### 14.3.1 National Level

At the national level, there are four types of relations between higher education and economy. The four types of these relations are: high-skilled + high-waged employment; high-skilled + low-waged employment; low-skilled + low waged employment; and low skilled + high-waged employment.

### 14.3.2 Regional Level

At the regional level, there are two types of relations between higher education and economy. The illustration of these two types is: high-skilled + high-waged employment; low-skilled + low-waged employment.

### 14.3.3 International Level

At the international level of the relationship between higher education and economy, there is only one type of relation outlined in high-skilled + high-waged employment.

### 14.3.4 Discussion

Establishing and operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality leads to creating one relation only covering national, regional and international levels which is summarised in high-skilled + high-waged employment. Since higher education is responsible for rating skills and economy is responsible for rating wages, the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality leads to create high-skilled + high-waged employment on both regional and international levels and high-skilled + high-waged employment and high-skilled + low-waged employment on national level generally and in countries of low ranking economies particularly. So, high-skilled + low waged employment in nations of low ranking economies will have opportunity to seek high-waged employment in regional and international economies. With long term and as HEIs are main source of enriching economy, internationalising quality of higher education in low ranking economies will lead to strengthening these economies to be able to offer high-waged employment through producing and preparing generations equipped with required and appropriate knowledge and skills for creating such targeted transformation aimed at strengthening their national economy. Then, there will be only one relation covering the local and global contexts which is high-skilled + high-waged employment.

Along with the increasing supply of high-skilled graduates from across the globe and the increasing transformation in knowledge and skills, it is no longer sufficient for HEIs to depend only on lifelong learning to create and lead these transformations or even to be in parallel with them. Local and global challenges require transferring from knowledge society to quality society for establishing and operating quality as public policy and practice in every sector and corner across local and global boundaries. Quality society produces and prepares individuals to know and believe that quality is right exactly as water and air, and not only luxury. Establishing and operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to assist in creating this new era of international development in life of nations, where policy and practice of quality society is to be operated letting peoples to believe in quality and benefit from its applications in their daily life.

With increasing knowledge and rapid transformation in production and labour sector, the relation high-skilled + high-waged employment will be threatened from new international

competition based on quality and price. This new and international competition will enable companies to advance raising criteria in recruitment of their needs of high-skilled human resources and reduce their wages at the same time. This means that there will be readiness to create new relation between higher education and economy, with a view to establish it in a way that is to be alert to any possibilities and emergencies. The realisation of this future expectation recommends creating lifelong quality-based high-skilled + lifelong high-waged employment as a relation between higher education and economy.

However and with operating this realisation, perspective of knowledge economies operated by national governments in high ranking countries as way of providing prosperity for their citizens might require further enhancement. These governments are expected to face future challenges regarding this issue. Creating and operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality might assist these governments as well as other national governments in low ranking countries on how they should be guided and assisted in transferring from knowledge economy to quality economy, as to meet local and global challenges in regard to contemporary and future issues. Establishing and operating this realisation is to enable national governments to have and operate quality education, quality economy, quality policy, quality culture, quality environment and quality life in their own societies. This leads to creating quality societies. Because the whole system is more significant and bigger than the entire collection of its sub-systems, as the whole combines between the collection of its sub-systems in addition to the interaction between the components of these sub-systems, establishing and operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to be accompanied with creating interaction between local and global dimensions to succeeding the vision for this research. With establishing and operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality, quality-driven economy will demand larger proportion of workforce with highly international quality higher education and with access to lifelong quality (life based on quality). This realisation seeks to establish how to meet this demand in addition to providing creative solution on how to raise quality of higher education from national and regional level to the international level and how to persuade, guide and assist national governments around the world to establish and operate the vision of quality society. As multidimensional organisation, the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can assist national governments in creating quality society. This indicates that the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality will have impact on economy and society.

## 14.4 Global Power

Historical and contemporary factors created international scales for classifying power, where classifications of nations are ranked. It is hypothesised that framework of international relations between countries is concerned with classification affecting formation of international decisions and their applications. This classification is called here ‘head and body nations’ (term head denotes the strength of government and term body denotes strength of the people). With classification of ‘head and body nations’, establishing and operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to generate required participation and assistance to eradicate this distinction. Explicit analysis follows.

### 14.4.1 National Level

At national level, there are four types of classification. The four types of this classification are: nationally strong body + nationally strong head = nationally high ranking country; nationally weak body + nationally strong head = nationally promised (capable) country; nationally strong body + nationally weak head = nationally low ranking country; and nationally weak body + nationally weak head = nationally week country.

### 14.4.2 Regional Level

At regional level, there are four types of classification. The illustration of these four types is: regionally strong body + regionally strong head = regionally high ranking country; regionally weak body + regionally strong head = regionally promised country; regionally strong body + regionally weak head = regionally low ranking country; and regionally weak body + regionally weak head = regionally weak country.

### 14.4.3 International Level

At international level of classification between countries, there are four types outlined in: internationally strong body + internationally strong head = internationally high ranking country; internationally weak body + internationally strong head = internationally

promised country; internationally strong body + internationally weak head = internationally low ranking country; and internationally weak body + internationally weak head = internationally weak country.

### 14.4.4 Discussion

In this classification, body represents people and head represents government of every country. As the head is the governor, leader and operator of body, with country of week head there will not be any hope for this country to advance occupying well weight on international scales or even to gain well-estimation from global powers one day. While country of strong head + strong body is classified as high ranking country, case of strong head + weak body indicates that there will be hope to advance occupying well weight on international scales or to gain well-estimation from global powers one day as promised country. As higher education is meant by preparing and strengthening body of every country, it is duty of the head of every country to operate and provide highly international quality higher education for its generations to enhance empowering its body, creating strong country occupying well weight on international scales and estimated by global powers.

Establishing and operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can assist national governments in high and low ranking countries to provide highly international quality higher education for their peoples and advance preparing and equipping their generations with required knowledge and skills so as to be internationally strong countries. With long term, the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality will be able to change the landscape of this international classification allowing only one type outlined in internationally strong body + internationally strong head = internationally high ranking country. This means that in the future, establishing and operating United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality advance enabling all countries to become internationally high ranking countries occupying well weight on international scales and gaining well-estimation from global powers. This indicates that the creation of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality will have impact on politics and society.

## 14.5 Alliance of Civilisations

The body of every country is the creator of its civilisation. The head of every country is the supervisor of this creation. Since heads of countries are their decision takers, the term ‘clash of civilisations’ is far from truth and validity. Civilisations do not clash each other, and have no reason to do with the existing clashes, conflicts and wars occurring around the world. Civilisations only assist, fulfil and collaborate with each other. This is because civilisations are the production and creation of bodies of all countries. Civilisations are related and belonged to bodies and not to heads of countries. Since decision takers of countries are their heads and not their bodies, and since decisions causing and creating clashes, conflicts and wars are only taken by heads and not bodies of countries, it is dreadful mistake to relate clashes, conflicts and wars happening around the world to civilisations. Civilisations are completely innocent from this accusation. The past and present situations indicate that it is clash of heads and not clash of bodies.

Establishing and operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality can assist in persuading, guiding and supporting heads of countries to stop calling for, and creating clashes, conflicts and wars. Instead, the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to be multidimensional organisation to advance calling for international democracy, justice, human rights, peace, security, tolerance, prosperity and welfare.

## 14.6 Global Threats

‘Systematic’ understanding of quality is new initiative emanates from the readiness of the world. It is expected that establishing and operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality might face threats due to lack of familiarity of, and probably misunderstanding its character. If this is hypothesised case, certain threats are expected to confront the process of establishing and operating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality, particularly by some HEIs or/and some countries due to misunderstanding the character of the proposed organisation. To advance preparing how to tackle this future issue, the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to be multidimensional organisation at leading stage and at international acceptance to systematise process of providing highly international quality higher education available

for all on the basis of merit without discrimination. To advance confronting these threats and attaining this international systematisation, this research and its realisation come with vision to produce soft creation for establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the structure of the UN for governing and operating systematisation of quality, and to provide the international accreditation, trust and reputation to HEIs across the globe.

## 14.7 Summary of Chapter Fourteen

The chapter presented the impact of my Doctorate by discussing the future of systematisation of quality. The thesis now comes to its end of conclusion in the next chapter.

# Chapter Fifteen

# Conclusion

## 15.1 Introduction

This is the final chapter of the thesis. It reports back on the thesis development. Most important in this chapter is the articulation of the research contribution to knowledge before moving to enlighten the research limitations. The chapter ends with envisioning some opportunities for future research in the field.

## 15.2 Conclusion

Context of the research project is dominated by overriding factors of the potential for 'systematic' understanding of quality. Reflections of this research are multidimensional. These reflections are approached from multidisciplinary and trans-disciplinary stances around the potential for 'systematic' understanding of quality.

Quality in the world is undergoing different waves of development. The research investigation shows that the past few decades have witnessed unprecedented development in quality across the globe. The role of governments has decreased while that of market has become important with its proposition of increasing choice and diversifying options for improving social commitment through strengthened accountability (see section 5.6 of chapter five and section 6.3 of chapter six and section 7.3 of chapter seven and see chapter ten). In this context of changing roles, demand for creating 'systematic' understanding of quality has continued to grow rapidly culminating in the three UNESCO forums of 2002, 2004 and 2007. These and other world operations let me to create systematisation of quality.

Rising demand for governing and systematising the 'systematic' understanding of quality in the world is direct result of the unprecedented growth in the number of HEIs, national agencies and regional networks of quality. This characterises the potential for international systematisation of accountability and recognition for protecting stakeholders from fraudulent institutions. Meanwhile, types of HEIs have diversified to such extent that it is increasingly difficult to make distinction between public and private

institutions. This is because some public institutions in certain country may have private operations in another country. This context became more complex as it is accompanied with wide range of both non-profit and for-profit new providers.

As analysed in the research first phase (chapters 2 - 12), the developments of the past few decades created concern of breadth and depth global scale on how 'systematic' understanding of quality in the world can be created. This reveals the importance of policy reforms in quality by seeking how to create systematisation for enhancing quality. 'Systematic' understanding of quality operated via the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality, therefore, is the research soft creation for 'systematic' understanding of quality in the world ensuring that HEIs fulfil set of international standards. 'Systematic' understanding of quality is linked not only to maintaining quality but also to systematisation of quality enhancement, if it is properly operated and systematised. This means that for higher education to fulfil its mission of international development, it has to be global public good with strong global commitment based on systematisation.

Building on the research first phase of systems analysis, operations of 'systematic' understanding' of quality across national, regional and world boundaries require revision towards international systematisation. The research first phase suggests that 'systematic' understanding of quality and particularly its operations are ready towards the world systematisation. I argue that creating 'systematic' understanding of quality can create new era of international development in the field. That is why I used systems analysis and design methodology in conducting this research. Although national, regional and international operations of quality are not systematised, I used systems analysis and design methodology to familiarise policy makers and operators of quality worldwide with the importance of systematisation, and that 'systematic' understanding of quality is ready to be an overall system combining a set of sub-systems and not only an assessing mechanism.

The thesis, therefore, undertakes systems design to generate intellectual contributions to knowledge in the field. The research draws on the theoretical application of systems design set out in chapter two to model the establishment of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. However, the character and structure of the research reached conclusion that none of systems enhancement set out in section 4.8 of

chapter four of chapter two is suitable. This is because all these types of systems enhancement require pre-existing system for their enhancement. This is not the case with this research. This is because the research second phase uses the creative systematisation for the first time in the field to create systematisation of quality. Thus, by investigating the potential for 'systematic' understanding of quality and exploring the case for international systematisation through international system for 'systematic' understanding of quality, contribution is made possible to the conduct of practical problem in the world and to the application of systems analysis and design procedures in the field.

The research investigates the potential for creating and operating systematisation of quality via establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the structure of the UN for governing and systematising the 'systematic' understanding of quality in the world, and for providing the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe. The research created rigorous analysis directed to generating original and significant interpretation of the case for global systematisation governing systematisation of quality. This creates new era of international development characterised with global systematisation in the field. In addition to its main concern of providing the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe, the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is to be multidimensional organisation to guide and support HEIs, national agencies and regional networks of quality and nations governments across the globe for addressing contemporary and future educational, cultural, socio-economic, political and environmental issues.

The research theorises the potential of creating into existence new international system (the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality) for systematising systematisation of quality in the world and for providing the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe. This new creation is to exist and work side by side with national agencies and regional networks of quality. An example explaining this is that certain higher education institution can obtain national accreditation from its national agency for quality. But if certain higher education institution desires to obtain the international accreditation, it is through the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. However, I stress that the thesis produced soft creation and that the hard creation of constructing and establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is the responsibility of the United Nations.

In more practical terms, creating the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality does not require stopping the operation of national and regional quality. Rather, it provides creation transforming from the current state of quality to move to the potential state of systematisation of quality operated via the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. However, the new creation requires financial outlay, resources and abilities as well as creation of new knowledge on how to operate with the new state. Operations of the current state would continue to work in aligning systematisation with the potential state of international system. This allows for the conduct of comparisons between the current and new states indicating similarities, differences, weaknesses, strengths, opportunities and challenges. Additional considerations include: identifying the time when transformation from national and regional quality to systematisation of quality is to take place; identifying requirements for this international transformation; comparing the expected outcomes of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality with these of national and regional quality; proceeding with the corrective actions; and governing this world systematisation.

Creating 'systematic' understanding of quality addresses what appears to be is missing to complete the entire building of systematisation of quality worldwide towards systematisation. I suggest that establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality could be expected to have key outputs on, or influences over the three main spheres of economics, politics and society worldwide. The proposed new international system is designed to provide international accreditation, trust and reputation to the qualifications of HEIs across the globe. This creation puts the final stone in the worldwide building of quality. The United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality creates systematisation of quality in the world and adds the international level for encouraging HEIs to address global issues and requirements. The new systematisation of quality is to be dynamic creating short and long chains of cooperation and communication although the hierarchy in the operations of the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is still existed via passing by requirements of contact across the levels of systematisation of quality (individual, programme, department/faculty, institutional, national, regional and the new world of systematisation of quality).

## 15.3 Contribution to Knowledge

When conducting research, a given research design must be chosen with the ultimate aim in mind to solve a problem or issue. There are various contributions to knowledge associated with this research. The claim of contribution to knowledge in this research is intellectual, methodological and substantial.

There are key studies which have tried to enhance the field of quality. However, this study goes beyond these previous studies through its vision, methodology, implications and impact. It creates new world level of 'systematic' understanding of quality and also it contributes with a soft creation which articulates a theorisation for establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for systematising the 'systematic' understanding of quality in the world and for providing the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe. None of the sources reviewed have yet reached this attainment or even addressed this idea. So the research intellectual contribution is the first of its kind attempting to create this creation. Both of the way systematising and articulating knowledge and the knowledge itself are entirely new in the field.

### 15.3.1 Intellectual Contributions

Creating 'systematic' understanding of quality is new approach for which the need has been confirmed. Bringing this international level into existence can overcome negative effects resulting from its absence particularly on low ranking countries. The research met a gap in knowledge by asserting the potential for 'systematic' understanding of quality, and through articulating a theorisation for establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality within the UN organisation for performing the international accreditation to HEIs across the globe. By doing this, the research produced international transformation and created new era of international development in the field.

Part of the research intellectual contributions is that I have proposed programme for providing qualifications and degrees (Postgraduate Certificate, MSc, PhD and MPhil/PhD in quality assurance and accreditation in education) in the Graduate School of Education, University of Exeter. I have submitted this proposal on the 15$^{th}$ of August 2011 to the Graduate School of Education, University of Exeter. This programme is applicable and of global uniqueness as it is the first of its kind across the globe. It is not found in any university in any country in the world. The proposal included strong evidence of large

and sustainable student market. This programme is expected to be prestigiously attractive and suitable for postgraduate students, professionals, teachers, administrative staff and managers of internal quality within education institutions, staff and managers of agencies of quality across the globe, and individuals who wish to perform roles in the contexts of quality.

The research intellectual contributions continue. The thesis has shown that 'systematic' understanding of quality is a very large international enterprise, but significantly under theorising and lacking overarching philosophy. Key intellectual contribution of the thesis has been to open up that possibility through the use of systems analysis and design methodology. The research articulated philosophy for systematisation of quality in section 13.4.1 of chapter thirteen and proposed the potential to establish science of systematisation and science of quality and science of systematisation of quality in section 14.2 of chapter fourteen through creating qualifications and degrees specialised in systematisation and quality and systematisation of quality. The research clarified the potential for internationally accepted terminology of quality and global accepted standards. The glossary in the thesis exemplifies this terminology and the theorisation of establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality in section 5.2 of chapter five indicates the potential for these standards.

### 15.3.2 Substantial Contributions

Regarding the research substantial contributions, the way this research has been undertaken and its structure is new in the field. The structure of the research and the way of analysing data is new. The research analysed current operations in the development of quality from seven levels of analysis, which is entirely new in the field. It is the first time for a research to investigate systematisation of quality worldwide and in depth and detail. The research has done this across its two phases of investigation. Phase one of the research (chapters 2 - 12) analysed deeply and in details quality worldwide. This phase started from the whole in chapter two and then moved to the part in chapters six and seven before returning back to the whole in the rest of the phase.

Chapter five started from the whole by examining features, issues and operations of quality. It investigated features of quality covering mainly notion, functions, mechanisms, types and legitimacy of quality. The chapter introduced terminology that suites the

research methodology of analysis and its breadth and depth global scale. The chapter investigated key issues characterising the development of quality. Although the chapter addressed quality, it introduced three new issues. These three issues are power, politicisation and systematisation of quality. The research in this chapter highlighted the contested nature of these issues, and concluded that these issues are often inter-related. Most important is that the character and structure of this chapter addressed the question of what is the compulsory element (power) that motivates national governments, agencies of quality, HEIs and individuals to undertake quality. In addition, it creates new area of research of how and why quality should undertake political responsibilities? As the chapter is still examining the whole, operations of quality covering agencies of quality and their procedures for assuring and accrediting the quality of HEIs have been examined. The chapter investigated further by moving to address how quality of HEIs, programmes and courses is assured and accredited. For systematisation, the chapter figured systematisation of quality in explicit shape to make it systematised.

Chapter four moved to the part through investigating current operations in the development of quality in the UK and Egypt, with a view that the potential of the two contexts for 'systematic' understanding of quality is examined through the international level. With each case, the analysis and discussion started from the whole before moving to the part and, then, returning back to the whole. The analysis and discussion of each case started from the whole with an overview for introducing each case followed by explicit analysis on operations of development in quality of the UK and Egypt. The chapter then moves to the part through number of themes starting from the smallest level of analysis in the world (individual level) and ending with the biggest level of analysis in the world (the world level). The seven themes of analysis represented in: individual level; programme level; department/faculty level; institutional level; national level; regional level; and the world level are discussed in this chapter. The discussion of the seventh theme (the world level) is placed in the research case studies as the empirical rationale for deciding the potential, and therefore articulating theorisation, for establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for governing systematisation of quality and for providing the international accreditation for HEIs across the globe. The systematisation of the two contexts has been shaped in two explicit figures. The discussion, then, returns back to the whole through addressing key issues characterising each case. Most important is the comparative findings which presented comparably and systematically the main features, issues and operations of quality in the UK and Egypt. I

offered corrective actions to address the weaknesses in the two cases. I presented the importance of systematisation in the operations of quality in the UK and Egypt.

Chapter five is a return back to the whole, where it is culmination of the thesis development. The chapter addressed regional operations in quality starting with overview followed by the regional initiatives and networks currently existing in different regions around the world. The chapter moved to address international operations, agreements, networks, organisations, initiatives, calls and polls currently existing in the world. The chapter, then, examined the character and structure of the UN organisation.

Most important is chapter six which investigated the potential state of 'systematic' understanding of quality. Because the research first phase of systems analysis suggests moving to the research second phase of systems design, chapter six is a theorisation for establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for coordinating and systematising systematisation of quality. This chapter constitutes the potential state of systematisation of quality. It is the design implications of the research.

### 15.3.3 Methodological Contributions

This is the first study to implement systems analysis and design methodology in the field of systematisation of quality. I have theorised the theoretical application of systems analysis and design methodology for the first time in this research because it is not in the existing literature. The new methodological applications of this research have made systematisation of quality more systematic. The research revealed what happened when we apply systems analysis and design methodology from hard and natural sciences and apply it to social sciences. In this case, new elaboration of new application of systems analysis and design methodology is made possible, where the research used the creative systematisation for the first time in the field. These new philosophy and methodology have added new to the philosophical and methodological stances. The creative systematisation is the creation from none. The research new application coordinates and systematises the creation from none. The thesis claims that, in relation to existing methodology (systems analysis and design methodology) this procedure is methodological innovation and is labelled here as 'the creative systematisation'. The ontological stance of this application is creationism. The epistemological stance is the potential. Specifically, in applying systems analysis and design, if there is potential to

establish previously missing system (in this case the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality), the creative systematisation is the 'operation' to be used. This assisted to undertake the task of theorising and articulating application of this theorisation for establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality as new institutional body within the United Nations.

The research generated three types of representativeness and generalizability which is new in the field. The first type is representational, where the first, second and third levels of analysis on the current operations in the development of internal quality in the Graduate School of Education in the University of Exeter in the UK, and in Faculty of Education, Mansoura University in Egypt can be applied on other faculties and schools in the two universities. The second type is referential, where the fourth level of analysis on the current operations in the development of quality in the University of Exeter in the UK and Mansoura University in Egypt can be applied on the other universities in the two countries. The third type is theoretical, where the fifth level of analysis on the current operations in the development of quality in the UK and Egypt can be applied on the other countries. This contributed that while representativeness and generalizability in engineering, computer and IT are theoretical, the research case studies revealed that there are three levels of representativeness and generalizability (representational, referential and theoretical) due to the social factor in the research contexts. Although the research fieldwork used the non-probability sampling, the research is in strong position to make generalisations. The breaths and depth of the research seven analysis typologies create this position (see section 3.2.10 of chapter three). According to the research analysis typology, I argue that the proposals and implications of this study can be implemented in the seven levels of analysis across national, regional and international boundaries. This is due to the similarities between the seven levels of analysis in the UK with the similar levels in high ranking countries, and the similarities between the seven levels of analysis in Egypt with similar levels in low ranking countries, following similar legislative framework respectively on quality.

The research methodology imported from technical systems is new to be operated in the field. This importation has been theorised for the first time in this research because it is not in the existing literature. The new application created 'systematic' understanding of quality. Using systems analysis and design methodology revealed that sociotechnical systems of quality exist from level two (programme level) passing by level three

(department/faculty level), level four (institutional level), level five (national level) to level six (regional level). This application expresses the absence of international sociotechnical system comprises the international 'systematic' understanding of quality worldwide. This research addresses this gap via its soft creation of articulating theorisation for establishing international sociotechnical system (the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality) within the United Nations for governing and systematising systematisation of quality in the world.

These contributions to knowledge make the thesis unique and original. I have executed this particular type of research with careful consideration to the research authenticity. The originality of data is accurate and coherent. The way data has been structured and analysed is entirely original. The systematisation of data in this research does not exist in the literature. The idea of the research and the research soft creation represented in articulating theorisation for establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality for operating systematisation of quality within the United Nations are completely original. I gave further attention to the research credibility, where all data and information occurred in this research is accurate. Also the research representativeness is unique and of wider impact upon the research context, similar contexts and the notion of 'systematic' understanding of quality across the globe. The type and kind of data enable the research to have representational generalisation, referential generalisation and theoretical generalisation. Furthermore the meaning of the writings in this research is clear and does not bear more than one meaning. This is because of the clarity of the research intention.

Finally the impact of the research had positive reflections upon me. It directed me to envision new ways of systematising the structure and content in building this research. I think that I have done something unique and original. After conducting this research, systematisation of quality worldwide entered new era of international development. This can lead to create new ideas, visions, methodologies and systems. The global picture of systematisation of quality has now been completed and can be seen, evaluated and developed. This research put the final stone in the worldwide building of systematisation of quality by creating international level and articulating theorisation for establishing the United Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality. However, I stress that the research creation is soft as the research envisioned, assessed and theorised, and that the hard creation represented in the actual construction and establishment of the United

Nations Organisation for Systematisation of Quality is the responsibility of the United Nations.

## 15.4 Research Limitations

Although the research used different types of data collection, it would be more appropriate if the research conducted interviews with experts from across the globe and other interviews with experts from the UN and UNESCO. Such experts could generate more data that could increase the validity and reliability of the representativeness and generalisability on the potential for creating systematisation of quality. These have been taken into my consideration. I tried to meet them through travelling to Buenos Aires, Argentina to interview experts from across the globe during the General Assembly of INQAAHE in May 2008; and to the United Nations in New York, USA to interview experts from the United Nations but the financial and bureaucratic restrictions were the obstacle. In addition to this, not all required documents in the research case studies are allowed to be reviewed. There were documents that required permission and it was not possible to get this permission. For these occasions, research interviews were to meet these limitations.

## 15.5 Opportunities for Future Research

Undertaking this research revealed potential and created new opportunities for conducting future research. Conducting future studies might include: (1) international quality assurance and accreditation in higher education addressing local and global needs; (2) the role of international quality assurance and accreditation in higher education in social, economic and political development; (3) the role of international quality assurance and accreditation in higher education in succeeding the United Nations Organisation; (4) the future development of international quality assurance and accreditation in higher education; (5) the theory and practice of applying systems analysis and design methodology in social sciences; and (6) the implications of international quality assurance and accreditation in higher education.

## References


1. Abdalla, G. A. (2005). Quarterly Progress Report (July 2005 - December 2005): Higher Education Enhancement Project Fund (HEEPF), Ministry of Higher Education, Egypt.
2. Abdellah, G. A. H. (2003). *Egypt's Higher Education Reform Strategy Striving for Excellence in Higher Education*: The 17th IDP Australian International Education Conference: securing the Future of International Education: Managing Growth and Diversity, Australia.
3. Abdellah, G. A. H. (2004). HEEPF Annual Progress Report: Higher Education Enhancement Project Fund, Ministry of Higher education, Egypt.
4. Aerden, A. (2008). Qrossroads. *The Benefits of Mutual Recognition of Accreditation and Quality Assurance Decisions*: The European Consortium for Accreditation in Higher Education.
5. Aktas, Z. (1987). *Structured Analysis and Design of Information Systems*: Prentice-Hall.
6. Al Bandary, M. S. (2005). Meeting the Challenges: The Development of Quality Assurance in Oman's Colleges of Education. *Higher Education, 50*( 2), 181-195.
7. Albright, M. (2003). United Nations. *Foreign Policy, 138*(3), 16-24.
8. Alderman, G., and Brown, Roger. (2005). Can Quality Assurance Survive the Market? Accreditation and Audit at the Crossroads. *Higher Education Quarterly, 59*(4), 313-328.
9. Alexander, H. (2006). A view from Somewhere: Explaining the Paradigms of Educational Research. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 40 (2), 205-221.
10. Altbach, P. G. (2009). India: The Inevitable Consequences of the Open Door in Higher Education. [The Boston College Centre for International Higher Education]. *International Higher Education, 56*.
11. Amaral, A. (2007). *Higher Education and Quality Assessment: The Many Rationales for Quality.* Paper presented at the Embedding Quality Culture in Higher Education: A Selection of Papers from the 1st European Forum For Quality Assurance, Brussels, Belgium. European University Association.
12. Andresen, M. A. (2008). The evolving quality of trade between Canada and the United States *The Canadian Geographer, 52*( 1), 22-37.
13. Annan, K. (2005). In Larger Freedom: Decision Time at the UN. *Foreign Affairs,*

*84*(3), 63-74.

14. ANQAAHE. (2007). *Constitution for the Arab Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education*: from http://www.anqahe.org
15. Antony, S., and Gnanam, A. . (2001). Quality Assurance in Distance Education: The Challenges to be Addressed. *Higher Education, 47*(2), 143-160.
16. APEC. (2008). *The APEC Engineer Manual: The Identification of Sustainable Equivalence*, from http://www.apqn.org
17. Arksey, H., and Knight, P. . (1999). Interviewing for Social Scientists. London: Sage Publications.
18. Arrunada, B. (2000). Audit Quality: Attributes, Private Safeguards and the Role of Regulation. *European Accounting Review, 9*(2), 205 - 224
19. Axlerod, R. (1997). *The complexity of cooperation*. Princeton: NJ: Princeton University Press.
20. Babiker, A. B. (Ed.). (2007). Arab Society for Quality Assurance in Education (Vol. 2): *Higher Education in the World, Accreditation for Quality assurance: What is at Stake?* GUNI Series on the Social Commitment of Universities, New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
21. Badley, G. (1998). *The* TQA and Its Impact on International Education. *Innovations in Education and Teaching internationals, 35*(2), 133-139.
22. Badrawi, N. (2006). *Improving the Quality of Higher Education in Egypt*. Paper presented at the *Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project*, Cairo University, Egypt
23. Bahill, A. T., and Dean, F.F. (1999). Discovering system requirements. In A. P. Sage, and Rouse, W.B (Ed.), *Handbook of Systems Engineering* (pp. 175-220): John Wiley & Sons.
24. Baiman, S., and Fischer, Paul E., and Rajan, Madhav V. (2000). Information, Contracting, and Quality Costs. *Management Science, 46*(6), 776-789.
25. Baird, J. (2006). *Quality Audit and Assurance for Trans-national Higher Education*, Australian Universities Quality Agency, Melbourne.
26. Banathy, B. H. (1996). *Designing Social Systems in a Changing World: Contemporary Systems Thinking*: Springer.
27. Bannock, G., Baxter, R., and Rees, R. . (1972). *A Dictionary of Economics*. London: Penguin Books.
28. Barnaby, J. (1981). Concept of Manufacturing System. In 3 (Ed.), *Systems Behaviour*. London: Paul Chapman.

29. Barnett, J. (2008). Peace and Development: Towards a New Synthesis. *Journal of Peace Research, 45*(1), 75-89.
30. Barnett, R. (1992). *Improving Higher Education*. Buckingham, SRHE: Total Quality Care.
31. Barnett, R. (1992). Linking Teaching and Research: A Critical Inquiry. *The Journal of Higher Education, 63*( 6), 619-636
32. Barnett, R. (1993a). Knowledge, Higher Education and Society: A Post Modern Problem. *Oxford Review of Education, 19*(1), 33-46.
33. Barnett, R. (1993b). *Quality Assessment - An Evaluation*. Centre for Higher Education Studies: Institute of Education, University of London.
34. Barnett, R. (1994), Power, Enlightenment and Quality Evaluation. *European Journal of Education*, 29 (29), 165-179.
35. Barnett, R. (2000). Universities Knowledge in an Age of Super Complexity. *Higher Education, 40*( 4), 409-422.
36. Barr, N. (2004). *Economics of the Welfare State* (4 ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
37. Barr, N., and Crawford, I. . (2005). *Financing Higher Education: Answers from the U.K.* London: Routledge.
38. Bassett, M. (2006). Cross-Border Higher Education for Capacity Development, *World Bank, OECD and Nuffic Seminar*, 14-15 September, 2009, from www.oecd.org.imhe
39. Beale, A. B., David, and Mainwaring, Lynn (2008). University Patenting in Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland: A comparative Analysis. *Higher Education Quarterly, 62*(1&2), 101-119.
40. Beccari, L. A. R., and Remaud, Bernard (2008). Joint Accreditation Procedures, *The Benefits of Mutual Recognition of Accreditation and Quality Assurance Decisions*: The European Consortium for Accreditation in Higher Education.
41. Beccari, L., and Rauret, Gemma (2008). How can Mutual Recognition Validate the Work of Accreditation and Quality Assurance Agencies? *The Benefits of Mutual Recognition of Accreditation and Quality Assurance Decisions*: The European Consortium for Accreditation in Higher Education.
42. Belal, A., and Springuel, Irina (2007). Research in Egyptian Universities: The role of Research in Higher Education: South Valley University, Egypt.
43. Belfield, C. (2000). *Economic Principles for Education: Theory and Evidence*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.

44. BERA. (2004). *Revised Ethical Guidelines For Educational Research*. British Educational Research Association, from http://www.bera.ac.uk/publications/pdfs/ETHICA1.PDF (Accessed 5th September 2008)
45. Berde, E., and Vanyolos, Istvan (2008). Impact of Institutional Changes on Hungarian Higher Education after 1987. *Higher Education Quarterly, 62*( 3), 297-317.
46. Bergan, S. (2005). Higher Education as a Public Good and a Public Responsibility: What does it mean? In L. Weber, and Bergan, S. (Ed.), *The Public Responsibility for Higher Education and Research*. Strasbourg, Cedex: Council of Europe Publishing.
47. Berlin, P. K. (1994). Article 64, *The Charter of The United Nations*: New York: Oxford University Press Inc.
48. Bevc, M., and Ursi, S. . (2008). Relations between Funding, Equity and Efficiency of Higher Education. *Education Economics, 16* (3), 229-224.
49. Bielefeld, C. V. (1994). Ratification and Signature, *The Charter of The United Nations*: New York: Oxford University Press Inc.
50. Biggs, J. (2001), The Reflective Institution: Assuring and Enhancing the Quality of Teaching and Learning. Higher Education, 41 (2), 221-238
51. Biggs, J., and Tang, C. . (2007). *Teaching for Quality Learning at University* (3 ed.). Berkshire: SRHE and Open University Press.
52. Billing, D. (2004). International Comparisons and Trends in External Quality Assurance of Higher Education: Commonality or Diversity? *Higher Education, 47*(1), 113-137.
53. Bishop, W. W. (1948). Conditions of Admissions to Membership in the United Nations. *The American Journal of International Law, 42*( 4), 927-934.
54. Black, I. (2006). Viewpoint: The Presentation of Interpretivist Research. Journal of *Qualitative Market Research*, 9 (4), 319-324.
55. Blackmore, J. A. (2004), A Critical Evaluation of Academic Internal Audit, *Quality Assurance in Education, 12(3*), 128-135
56. Blanchard, B. S., and Fabrycky, W. J. . (1990). *Systems Engineering and Analysis*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
57. Blondal, S., Field, S., and Girouard, N. . (2002). Investment in Human Capital through Upper-secondary and Tertiary Education. from OECD Economic Studies

No. 34, 2002/I. [Online] http://www.oecd.org.pdf [Accessed July 20 September 2012]

58. Bloor, M., and Wood, Fiona (2006). *Keywords in Qualitative Research: A vocabulary of Research Concepts*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
59. Bologna Process. (2004). *A Framework for Qualifications of the European Higher Education Area, Bologna Working Group on Qualifications Frameworks*.
60. Bologna Process. (2005). *The European Higher Education Area - Achieving the Goals*. Bergen.
61. Borum, F. (1980). Systems Design and Scientific Management. *Acta Sociologica, 23*(4), 287-296.
62. Bosch, O. J. H., King, C. A., HerbohnJ. L., Russell, I. W. , and Smith, C. S. . (2007). Getting the big picture in natural resource management-systems thinking as 'method' for scientists, policy makers and other stakeholders. *Systems Research and Behavioral Science (formerly Systems Research), 24*(2 ), 217-232.
63. Boutros-Ghali, B. (1992). Empowering the United Nations. *Foreign Affairs, 71*(5), 89-10.
64. Bradney, A. (2001). The Quality Assurance Agency and the Politics of Audit. *Journal of Law and Society, 28*(3), 430-442.
65. Bradshaw, Y., and Kendall, Ian, and Blackmore, Martin, and Johnson, Norman, and Jenkinson, Sandra (1998). Complaining OurWay to Quality: Complaints, Contracts and the Voluntary Sector. *Social Policy & Administration, 32*(3), 209-225.
66. Brandt, D., Hartmann, Ernst, Sander, Christine, and Strina, Guiseppe (1999). Designing and Simulating Sociotechnical Systems: Concepts and Strategies. *Human Factors and Ergonomics in Manufacturing & Service Industries, 9*(3), 245-252.
67. Breakwell, G. (2006). Interviewing Methods. In G. Breakwell, and Hammond, S., and Fife-Schaw, C., and Smith, J. (Ed.), *Research Methods in Psychology* (3 ed., pp. 232-253). London: Sage publications.
68. Brennan, J. and Shah, S. Tarla (2000). Quality Assessment and Institutional Change: Experiences from 14 Countries. *Higher Education, 40*( 3), 331-349
69. Brennan, L. L., and Austin, Walter W. (2003). Addressing the Need for Management Processes for Higher Education Accreditation. *Innovative Higher Education, 28*(1), 49-62.
70. Britez, R. and Peters, Michael A. (2007). Internationalisation and the

Cosmopolitan University. In D. Epstein, Boden, Rebecca, Deem, Rosemary, Rizvi, Fazal and Wright, Susan (Ed.), *World Year Book of Higher Education: Geographies of Knowledge, Geometries of Power: Framing The Future of Higher Education*. New York: Routledge.

71. Brok, C. (2007). Historical and Societal Roots of Regulation and accreditation of Higher Education for Quality Assurance *Higher Education in the World, Accreditation for Quality Assurance: What is at Stake?* (Vol. GUNI Series on the Social Commitment of Universities 2). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
72. Brown, A. (2006). Assessment Design and its relationship to NARS and ILOs: Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP), Ministry of Higher Education, Egypt.
73. Brown, R. (2000). The New UK Quality Framework. *Higher Education Quarterly, 54*(4), 323-342.
74. Brown, R. (2004) *Quality Assurance in Higher Education. The UK Experience since 1992*. London: Routledge Falmer.
75. Brown, R. (2005). Higher Education and the Market: Some thoughts And Reflections. from [Online]. http://oxcheps.new.ox.ac.uk [Accessed 23 September 2012].
76. Bryman, A. (2008). *Social Research Methods* (3 ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
77. Bullock, A., and Thomas, H. . (1997). *Schools at the Centre? A Study of Decentralisation*. London: Routledge.
78. Bullough, R. V., and Clark, and D. Cecil, and Patterson, Robert S. (2003). Getting in Step: Accountability, Accreditation and the Standardization of Teacher Education in the United States. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 29*(1), 35 - 51.
79. Burbules, N. C. (1986). A Theory of Power in Education. *Educational Theory, 36*(2), 95-114.
80. Bush, T. (2007) Editorial: Autonomy and Accountability in Higher Education. *Educational Management Administration Leadership*, 35 (4): 443-447.
81. Cabrera, D., Colosi, Laura , and Lobdell, Claire (2008). Systems Thinking. *Evaluation and Program Planning, 31*(3), 299-310.
82. Calero, J. (1998). Quasi-market Reforms and Equity in the financing of Higher Education. *European Journal of Education, 33*(1), 11-20.
83. Campbell, C., and Rozsnyai, C. . (2002). *Quality Assurance and the Development of Course Programmes.* Paper presented at the Papers on Higher Education

Regional University Network on Governance and Management of Higher Education in South East Europe, Bucharest.

84. Capra, F. (1996). *The web of life: a new scientific understanding of living systems*. New York: Anchor Books.
85. Carayon, P. (2006). Human Factors of Complex Sociotechnical Systems. *Applied Ergonomics, 37*(4), 525-535.
86. Carnoy, M. (1995). *International Encyclopedia of Economics of Education*. Oxford: Elsevier Science Ltd.
87. Chapman, B., and Greenaway, David (2006 ). Learning to Live with Loans? International Policy Transfer and the Funding of Higher Education. *The World Economy*, 1057-1075.
88. Chapman, B., and Ryan, C. . (2005). The access implications of income-contingent charges for higher education: Lessons from Australia. *Economics of Education Review, 24*(5), 491-512.
89. Chapman, T. L., and Reiter, Dan (2004). The United Nations Security Council and the Rally Round the Flag Effect. *The Journal of Conflict Resolution, 48*(6), 886-909.
90. Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing Grounded Theory: Practical Guide through Qualitative Analysis*. London: Sage Publications.
91. CHEA. (2001). Glossary of Key Terms in Quality Assurance and Accreditation. from http://www.chea.org/international/inter_glossary01.html [Accessed 22 September 2012].
92. Checkland, P. (1981). *Systems Thinking Systems Practice*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.
93. Checkland, P. (1983). OR and the Systems Movement: Maping and Conflict. *Journal of the Operational Research Society, 34*(8), 661-675.
94. Cheung, B. (2003) Higher Education Financing Policy: Mechanisms and Effects. *Essays In Education Online Journal*, Volume 5. [Online] www.usca.edu/essays [Accessed 19 October 2012].
95. Cheung, P. (2008). The Asian-Pacific Perspective, *The Benefits of Mutual Recognition of Accreditation and Quality Assurance Decisions*: The European Consortium for Accreditation in Higher Education.
96. Chong, A., and Calderon, C. (2000). Institutional Quality and Poverty Measures in a Cross-section of Countries. *Economics of Governance, 1*, 123-135.
97. Ciancanelli, P. (2007). Reproducing Universities: Knowledge Dissemination,

Market Power and the Global Knowledge Commons. In D. Epstein, Boden, Rebecca, Deem, Rosemary, Rizvi, Fazal and Wright, Susan (Ed.), *World Year Book of Higher Education: Geographies of Knowledge, Geometries of Power: Framing The Future of Higher Education*. New York: Routledge

98. Clark, T. (2006) OECD *Thematic Review of Tertiary Education Country Report: United Kingdom*. Department for Education and Skills. Research Report No RR767.
99. Coate, R. A., Puchala, P., and Donald. J. . (1990). Global Policies and the United Nations System: A Current Assessment. *Journal of Peace Research, 27*( 2), 127-140.
100. Codd, J. (2005) Teachers as ‗Managed Professionals' in the Global Education Industry: the New Zealand Experience. *Educational Review*, 57 (2): 193-206.
101. Cohen, L., and Manion, L., and Morrison, K. . (2007). *Research Methods in Education* (6 ed.). London: Routledge.
102. Collins English Dictionary. (Ed.) (2006) *Collins English Dictionary & Thesaurus* (4 ed.). Glasgow: HarperCollins Publishers.
103. Collins Thesaurus. (Ed.) (2009) *Collins Thesaurus A-Z* (5 ed.). HarperCollins Publishers.
104. Court, S. (2004). Government Getting Closer: Higher Education and Devolution in the UK. *Higher Education Quarterly, 58*(2-3), 151-175.
105. Cowan, J., George, Judith W. and Pinheiro-Torres, Andreia (2004). Alignment of Developments in Higher Education. *Higher Education, 48*(4), 439-459.
106. Cox, M. A. M., and Malfroy, Erwin. (2008). Bridging Accreditation and Recognition: Can Mutual Recognition facilitate the Work of Recognition Bodies? *The Benefits of Mutual Recognition of Accreditation and Quality Assurance Decisions, The European Consortium for Accreditation in Higher Education*.
107. Craig, M., and Charles, C. . (2005). *Introduction to Educational Research* (5 ed.). Boston: Pearson.
108. Creswell, J. W. (1998*). Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing among Five Traditions*. London: Sage Publications Inc.
109. Creswell, J. W. (2003) Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches, Thousand Oaks: sage Publications

110. Crotty, M (1998) The Foundations of Social Research: Meaning and Perspective in the Research Process, London: Sage Publications

111. Crotty, M. (2003). *The Foundations of Social Research*. London: Sage Publications.

112. Crow, G., Wiles, R., Heath, S., and Charles, V. . (2006). Research Ethics and Data Quality: The Implications of Informed Consent. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 9(2), 83-95.

113. Cutts, G. (1991). *Structured Analysis and Design Methodology, 2nd edition*: Alfred Waller Ltd.

114. Daenzer, F., and Huber F. (1985 ). *Systems Engineering*: Verlag Industrielle Organisation.

115. Damme, D. V. (2001). Quality Issues in the Internationalisation of Higher Education. *Higher Education, 41*(4), 415-441.

116. Damme, D. V. (2002). *Trends and Models in International Quality Assurance in Higher Education in Relation to Trade in Education Service*, Washington, D.C. USA: OECD/US. Paper presented at the Trade on Educational Service.

117. David, M. (2004). Equality and Equity in Higher Education: Learning to Develop New Paradigms from the US Experience. *European Educational Research Journal, 3* (4), 813-819.

118. Davidz, H. L., and Nightingale, Deborah J. . (2008). Enabling systems thinking to accelerate the development of senior systems engineers. *Systems Engineering, 11*(1), 1-14.

119. Davies, A., and Thomas, R. . (2002). Managerialism and Accountability in Higher Education: The Gendered Nature of Restructuring and the Costs to Academic Service. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 13* (2), 179-193.

120. Davis, D., and Ringsted, Charlotte. (2006). Accreditation of Undergraduate and Graduate Medical Education: How do the Standards Contribute to Quality? *Advances in Health Sciences Education, 11*(3), 305-313.

121. Davis, W., S. (1983). *Systems Analysis and Design: A structured Approach*: Adisson-Wisley.

122. Day, A. (2004). Crimes Against Humanity as a Nexus of Individual and State Responsibility: Why the ICJ Got Belgium V. Congo Wrong. *Berkeley Journal of International Law, 22*(3), 489-512.

123. Dearden, L., Fitzsimons, E., and Kaplan, G (2007). *Higher education funding reforms in England: The distributional effects and the shifting balance of costs*: The institute for social studies.

124. Dearing, R. (1997). Languages Review: Department for Education and Skills, United Kingdom.

125. Deem, R. (1998). New Managerialism and Higher Education: The Management of Performances and Cultures in Universities in the United Kingdom. *International Studies in Sociology of Education, 8* (1), 47-70.

126. Deem, R. (2001). Globalisation, New Managerialism, Academic Capitalism and Entrepreneurialism in Universities: is the local dimension still important? *Comparative Education and Computing, 37* (1), 7-20.

127. Deem, R. (2001). Globalisation, New Managerialism, Academic Capitalism and Entrepreneurialism in Universities: is the Local Dimension Still Important? *Comparative Education Review, 37*(1), 7-20.

128. Deem, R. (2006). Changing Research Perspectives on the Management of Higher Education: Can Research Permeate the Activities of Manager academics? *Higher Education Quarterly, 60*(3), 203-228.

129. Deem, R., and Brehony, J. . (2005). Management as Ideology: The Case of new managerialism in Higher Education. *Oxford Review of Education, 31* (2), 217-235.

130. Deem, R., and Johnson, R. (2000). Managerialism and University Managers: Building New Academic Communities or Disrupting Old Ones? In I. McNay (Ed.), *Higher Education and its Communities*. Buckingham: SRHE and Open University Press.

131. Deem, R., Hillyard, S., and Reed, M. . (2007). *Knowledge, Higher Education and the New Managerialism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

132. Dennis, A., Wixom, and Barbara Haley, and Tegarden, David (2002). *Systems Analysis and Design: An Object-oriented Approach with UML*. USA: John Wiley and Sons, Inc. .

133. Denscombe, M. (2002). *Ground Rules for Good Research: a 10 point guide for social researchers*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

134. Denscombe, M. (2007). *The Good Research Guide: for small-scale social research projects* (3 ed.). Maidenhead: Open University Press.

135. Denzin, N., and Lincoln, Y. (2000). *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.

136. DES. (1991), *Higher education: A new framework*, London: HMSO Department of Education and Science. *Education and Research*. Strasbourg, Cedex: Council of Europe Publishing. Pp.125-161.

137. Dickenson, R. P., Rogerson, J. H., and Azarov, V. N. . (2000). Building an Infrastructure for Quality Management in Russia. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 8(2), 70-75.

138. Didriksson, A., and Herrera, Alma, X. (2007). Universities' New Relevance and Social Responsibility, *Higher Education in the World, Accreditation for Quality Assurance: What is at Stake? GUNI Series on the Social Commitment of Universities 2*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

139. Dixon, J., Kouzmin, A., and Korac-Kakabadse, N. . (1998). Managerialism-something old, something borrowed, little new: Economic prescription versus effective organizational change in public agencies. *International Journal of Public Sector Management, 11*(2/3), 164-187.

140. Dixon, W. (1983). The Evaluation of Weighted Voting Schemes for The United Nations General Assembly. *International Studies Quarterly, 27*(3), 295-314.

141. Dodds, A. (2005). British and French Evaluation of International Higher Education Issues: An Identical Political Reality? *European Journal of Education: Research, Development and Policies, 40*(2), 155-172.

142. Doherty, G. D. (1997). Quality, Standards, the Consumer Paradigm and Developments in Higher Education. *Quality Assurance in Education, 5*(4), 239-248.

143. Dougherty, D. (1995). When it Comes to Product Innovation, What is so Bad about Bureaucracy? *The Journal of High Technology Management Research, 6*(1), 55-76.

144. Dougherty, K. (2004). Financing Higher Education in The United States: Structure, Trends, and Issues. from [Online] http://www.tc.columbia.edu [21 September 2012]

145. Douglas, A. S. (1983). Systems Analysis and Computers. *The Journal of Operational Research Society, 34*(8), 779-785.

146. Doumeingts, G. (1995). Methodologies for designing CIM Systems: A Survey. *Computers in Industry, 25*, 263-280.

147. Dranove, D., and Reynolds, Katherine S. E., and Gillies, Robin R., and Shortell, Stephen S., and Rademaker, Alfred W., and Huang, Cheng-Fang (1999).

The Cost of Efforts to Improve Quality. *Medical Care*, *37*(10), 1084-1087.

148. Dresden, U. F. (1994). Membership, *The Charter of The United Nations*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

149. Drever, E. (1995). *Using semi-structured interviews in small-scale research: a teacher's guide*. Glasgow: Scottish Council for Research in Education.

150. Dunworth, K. (2008). Ideas and Realities: Investigating Good Practice in the Management of Trans-national English Language Programmes for the Higher Education Sector. *Quality in Higher Education*, 14( 2), 95-107.

151. Dyrdal, T. S., and Karseth, Berit (2006). Professional Responsibility: An Issue for Higher Education? *Higher Education*, 52( 1), 95-119.

152. Edwards, C. (1984). Information Systems Maintenance: An Integrated Perspective. *MIS Quarterly*, *8*(4), 237-256.

153. Edwards, P. (1984). *Systems Analysis Design and Development with Structured Concepts*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

154. Egypt. (2000). Strategic Plan for Higher Education Enhancement in Egypt: Summary of Recommendations: National HEEP Conference February 13 - 14, Cairo, Egypt.

155. Egypt. (2006). Guidelines and Templates for Internal Quality Assurance System in Higher Education Institutions: Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP), Projects Management Unit (PMU), Ministry of Higher Education (MHOE), Egypt.

156. Egypt. (2006a). Guidelines and Templates for Internal Quality Assurance System in Higher Education Institutions: Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP), Projects Management Unit (PMU), Ministry of Higher Education (MHOE), Egypt.

157. Egypt. (2006b). Higher Education Enhancement Project Fund (HEEPF), Third Annual Progress Report (March 2003 - March 2006) P. 20.

158. Egypt. (2006c). World Bank Supervision Mission September 17 - 28, 2006: Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP), Ministry of Higher Education, Egypt.

159. Egypt. (2007-2008). *Guide to Higher Education Faculties and Institutes in Arab Republic of Egypt*: Minister of Higher Education.

160. Egypt. (2007a). Quality Assurance and Accreditation Centres in Universities: Quality assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP), Higher

Education Enhancement Project (HEEP), Ministry of Higher Education, Egypt.

161. Egypt. (2007b). Restructuring, Management Systems & Quality Assurance, and Accreditation: Higher Education Enhancement Project Fund (HEEPF), Ministry of Higher Education, Egypt

162. Egypt. (2007c). Developmental Engagement: Site-Visit Guidelines: Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP), Ministry of Higher Education, Egypt.

163. Egypt. (2007d). Guide to Higher Education in Egypt Ministry of Higher Education, Egypt.

164. Egypt. (2008). Higher Education Enhancement Project Supervision, January, 13-24: Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP), Ministry of Higher Education, Egypt.

165. Egypt. (2008b). Higher Education Enhancement Project Fund (HEEPF), Quarterly Progress Report, (October - December 2004) Higher Education Enhancement Project, Ministry of Higher education, Egypt.

166. Egypt. (2008c). Higher Education Enhancement Project Fund (HEEPF), Quarterly Progress Report, (October - December 2004) Higher Education Enhancement Project, Ministry of Higher education, Egypt.

167. Egypt. (2009a). Progress Report Forms for Project: Establishment of Internal Quality Assurance System: Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP), Ministry of Higher Education, Egypt.

168. Egypt. (2009b). Guidelines and Templates for Internal Quality Assurance System in Higher Education Institutions: Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP), Ministry of Higher Education, Egypt.

169. Eicher, J.-C., and Chevaillier, T. . (2002). Rethinking the Financing of Post-Compulsory Education. *Higher Education in Europe, 27* (1-2), 69-88.

170. El-Feky, A. (2006). Advancing Accreditation through Strengthening the Educational Infrastructure. *ASJOG, 3*(1), 26-28.

171. Elliott, J. (2005). *Using Narrative in Social Research*. London: Sage Publications.

172. El-Sawah, H. (2008). HEEP Progress Report From 1 April - 30 June 2008: Higher Education Enhancement Project 2002-2007, Ministry of Higher Education, Egypt.

173. EMF. (2007). *Constitution: The International Register of Professional Engineer,* Engineers Mobility Forum, from

http://www.washingtonaccord.org/EMF

174. ENQA. (2003). Workshop on Institutional Quality Audits, 1st/2nd December 2003, Zurich, Switzerland

175. Epstein, D. (2007). Introduction: Geographies of Knowledge, Geometries of Power: Framing the Future of Higher Education. In D. Epstein, and Boden, Rebecca, and Deem, Rosemary, and Rizvi, Fazal, and Wright, Susan (Ed.), *World Year Book of Higher Education: Geographies of Knowledge, Geometries of Power: Framing The Future of Higher Education*. New York: Routledge.

176. Erk, N. (2009). *Quality Assurance, Market Performance and Higher Education Quality Assurance Assessment.* Paper presented at the Proceedings of the 2009 EMU Conference on Higher Education and Research, Slovenia.

177. Ernest, P. (1994). *An Introduction to Research Methodology and Paradigms*. Exeter: The Research Support Unit.

178. Erridge, A., and Fee, Ruth, and McIlroy, John. (1998). Public Sector Quality: Political Project or Legitimate Goal? *International Journal of Public Sector Management, 11*(5), 341-353.

179. ESIB. (2008). European Student Handbook on Quality Assurance in Higher Education, *The National Unions of Students of Europe*. 2009, from www.esib.org

180. EUN (2011) *Egyptian Universities Network* [Online] http://www.eun.eg [Accessed 19 October 2012].

181. EUP (2011) *Egyptian Universities Portal* [Online] http://www.uv.edu.eg [Accessed 19 October 2012].

182. European Consortium for Accreditation. (2007). *The Benefits of Mutual Recognition of Accreditation and Quality Assurance Decisions*: European Consortium for Accreditation in Higher Education.

183. Fagadeesh, R. (2000). Assuring Quality in Management Education: The Indian Context. *Quality in Higher Education*, 8(3), 110-119.

184. Fahim, Y. and Sami, N. (2009) Financing Higher Education in Egypt. *Economic Research Forum* (ERF).

185. Fahim, Y. and Sami, N. (2011) Adequacy, efficiency and equity of higher education financing: The case of Egypt. *Prospects*, 41 (1): 47-67.

186. Fahim, Y., and Sami, N. . (2009). *Financing Higher Education in Egypt*. Economic Research Forum.

187. Fenstermacher, G. (1979). Educational Accountability: Features of the Concept. *Theory into Practice, 18* (5), 330-335.

188. Filippakou, O., and Tapper, Ted (2008). Quality Assurance and Quality Enhancement in Higher Education: Contested Territories? *Higher Education Quarterly, 62*(1&2), 84-100.

189. FitzGerald, J. (1981). *Fundamentals of Systems Analysis, 2nd edition*: John Wiley and Sons Inc.

190. Flick, U. (2006). *An Introduction to Qualitative Research*, Third Edition. London: SAGE Publications.

191. Floud, R. (2005). Government and Higher Education: The Approach to Regulation. In L. Weber, and Bergan, S. (Ed.), *The Public Responsibility for Higher Education and Research* (pp. 125-161). Strasbourg, Cedex: Council of Europe Publishing.

192. Forker, L. B. (1991). Quality: American, Japanese, and Soviet Perspectives. *The Executive, 5*(4), 63-74.

193. Foucault, M. (1994). The ethic of care for the self as a practice of freedom. In J. Bernauer, and Rasmussen, D. (Ed.), *The final Foucault.* (pp. 1-20). Cambridge: The MIT Press.

194. Foucault, M. (2002). *Power*. London: Penguin Books.

195. Fraenkel, J., and Wallen, N. (1993). *How To Design And Evaluate Research In Education* (2 ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill INC.

196. Fraenkel, J., and Wallen, N. (2006). *How To Design And Evaluate Research In Education* (6 ed.). Boston: The McGraw-Hill Companies.

197. Fraja, G. D., Iozzi, Alberto (2008). The Quest for Quality: A Quality Adjusted Dynamic Regulatory Mechanism. *Journal of Economics & Management Strategy, 17*(4), 1011-1040.

198. Frederiks, M. (2008). Mutual Recognition Agreements, *The Benefits of Mutual Recognition of Accreditation and Quality Assurance Decisions,* The European Consortium for Accreditation in Higher Education.

199. Freund, H., and Sundmacher, Kai (2008). Towards a Methodology for the Systematic Analysis and Design of Efficient Chemical Processes: Part 1. From Unit Operations to Elementary Process Functions. *Chemical Engineering and Processing: Process Intensification, 47*(12), 2051-2060.

200. Friedrich, J., and Smith, Paul. (1998). Suppressive Influence of Weak Arguments in Mixed-Quality Messages: An Exploration of Mechanisms via

Argument Rating, Pretesting, and Order Effects. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 20*(4), 293 - 304.

201. Fu, P. P., and Kennedy, Jeff, and Tata, Jasmine, and Yukl, Gary, and Bond, Michael Harris, and Peng, Tai-Kuang, and Srinivas, Ekkirala S., and Howell, Jon P., and Prieto, Leonel, and Koopman, Paul, and Boonstra, Jaap J., and Pasa, Selda, and Lacassagne, Marie-Francoise, and Higashide, Hiro and Cheosakul, Adith. (2004). The Impact of Societal Cultural Values and Individual Social Beliefs on the Perceived Effectiveness of Managerial Influence Strategies: A Meso Approach. *Journal of International Business Studies, 35*(4), 284-306.

202. Gaafar, L., and Bedworth, D. . (1993). *Manufacturing Integration using tile Object-Oriented Methodology.* Paper presented at the Proceedings of the Second Industrial Engineering Research Conference, Los Angelos.

203. Gal, M., and Gal, J., and Borg, W. . (2003). *Educational Research: An Introduction* (7 ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

204. Garaj, J., and Šutek, L'ubomir, and Weidlich, Marian. (1997). The Slovak National Accreditation System. *Accreditation and Quality Assurance, 2*(5), 261-262.

205. Garcia-Penalosa, C., and Walde, K. . (2000). *Efficiency and Equity Effects of Subsidies to Higher Education*: Oxford Economic Papers.

206. Gary, D. (2004). *Doing Research in the Real World*. London: Sage.

207. Gawerc, M. I. (2007). Peace-Building: Theoretical and Concrete Perspectives. *Peace & Change, 31*( 4), 435-478.

208. Gibbs, P., and Iacovidou, C. (2004). Quality as pedagogy of confinement: is there an alternative? *Quality Assurance in Education, 12*(3), 113-119.

209. Gill, T. D. (1990). Applicability of Article VI, Section 22, of the Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the United Nations. *The American Journal of International Law, 84*(3), 742-746.

210. Ginkel, H. J. A. V., and Antonio, Marco, and Dias, Rodrigues. (2007). Institutional and Political Challenges of Accreditation at the international Level *Higher Education in the World, Accreditation for Quality assurance: What is at Stake? GUNI Series on the Social Commitment of Universities 2*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

211. GIQAC. (2008a). *Governance Terms*, Global Initiative for Quality Assurance Capacity, Paris: UNESCO, ED/HED/RIQ/2008/PI/24, from http://web.worldbank.org

212. GIQAC. (2008b). *List of Targeted Countries and Territories*, Global Initiative for Quality Assurance Capacity, Paris: UNESCO, ED/HED/RIQ/2008/PI/25/REV, from http://web.worldbank.org

213. Goastellec, G. (2005). Towards an economy of access: Changes in funding equality of opportunities. from RESUP Symposium, Thematic: The market for resources [Online] http://www.resup.ubordeaux [Accessed 21 September 2012]

214. Goldberg, Y., and Shmilovici, Armin. (2005). An Expert System Approach for Quality Assurance Auditing. *The International Journal of Advanced Manufacturing Technology, 26*( 4), 415-419.

215. Goodman, A., and Kaplan, G. . (2003). *Study Now, Pay Later Or HE For Free? An Assessment of Alternative Proposals for Higher Education Finance*. London: The Institute for Fiscal Studies, Commentary 94.

216. Gore, C., Bond, Chris, and Steven, Valerie (2000). Organisational Self-assessment: Measuring Educational Quality in two Paradigms. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 8(2), 76-84.

217. Gore, J. M. (1995). On the Continuity of Power Relations in Pedagogy. *International Studies in Sociology of Education, 5*(2), 165-188.

218. Gore, M. (1983). *The Elements of Systems Analysis*: W. C. Brown Co.

219. Gottingen, D. R. (1994). International Trusteeship System, *The Charter of The United Nations*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

220. Goulding, M. (1993). The Evolution of United Nations Peacekeeping. *International Affairs, 69*(3), 451-464.

221. Grady, R., and Pratt, John (2000). The UK Technology Transfer System: Calls for Stronger Links between Higher Education and Industry. *Journal of Technology Transfer, 25*(1), 205-211.

222. Greenway, D., and Haynes, Michelle (2003). Funding Higher Education in the UK: The Role of Fees and Loans. *The Economic Journal, 113*( 485), 150-166.

223. Guba, E. G. (1990). The Paradigm Dialog. Newbury Park: SAGE.

224. Gubrium, J. F., and Holstein, James A. (2001). *Handbook of Interview Research: Context and Method*. London: SAGE Publications.

225. Gungwu, W. (1996). Freedom As An Asset. from [Online] http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/storyCode [Accessed 20 September 2012]

226. GUNI. (2007). *Higher Education in the World, Accreditation for Quality*

*Assurance: What is at Stake? GUNI Series on the Social Commitment of Universities 2*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

227. Gvaramadze, I. (2008). From Quality Assurance to Quality Enhancement in the European Higher Education Area. *European Journal of Education, 43*(4), 243-255.

228. Hacham, H., and Sheinman, Rivka (2003). The Contribution of the Accreditation Process to Public Administration: Promotion of Vital organisational Changes. *Accreditation Quality Assurance, 8*(1), 276-281.

229. Halle, W. M. (1994). Article 63, *The Charter of The United Nations*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

230. Hamburg, R. L. (1994). The Economic and Social Council, *The Charter of The United Nations*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

231. Haque, M. Z. (1996). The New Secretary General of UNO. *Economic Review, 27*(12), 95 -107.

232. Harman, G. (1998). The Management of Quality Assurance: A Review of International Practice. *Higher Education Quarterly, 52*( 4), 345-364.

233. Harman, K. (2002). Merging Divergent Campus Cultures into Coherent Educational Committees: Challenges for Higher Education Leaders. *Higher Education 44*(1), 91-114

234. Harris, D., and Harris, Fiona J.
. (2004). Evaluating the Transfer of Technology between Application Domains: A Critical Evaluation of the Human Component in the System. *Technology in Society, 26*(4), 551-565.

235. Harris, H. (2001). The Perceived Influence of Culture and Ethnicity on the Communicative Dynamics of the United Nations Secretariat. *Business Communication Quarterly, 64*(2), 105-113.

236. Harris, N., and Sauri, Josep Grifoll (2008). How can Mutual Recognition Enhance Joint Programmes and International Co-operation between HEIs? *The Benefits of Mutual Recognition of Accreditation and Quality Assurance Decisions,* European Consortium for Accreditation in Higher Education.

237. Harris, S. (2011) *The University in Translation: Internationalizing Higher Education.* London: Continuum International Publishing Group.

238. Harteloh, P. P. M. (2003). Quality Systems in Health Care: A Sociotechnical Approach. *Health Policy, 64*(3), 391 - 398.

239. Harvey, L. (2002), The End of Quality? *Quality in Higher Education*, 8 (1), 5-22.

240. Harvey, L. (2005), A History and Critique of quality Evolution in the UK. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 13 (4), 253-276.

241. Harvey, L. and Green, D. (1993) Defining Quality. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 18 (1): 9-34.

242. Harvey, L. and Newton, J. (2004) Transforming Quality Evaluation. *Quality in Higher Education*, 10 (2): 149-165.

243. Harvey, L., and Knight, P. . (1996). *Transforming Higher Education*. London: Society for Research into Higher Education.

244. Harvey, L., and Stensaker, Bjorn (2008). Quality Culture: Understandings, Boundaries and Linkages,. *European Journal of Education*, 43(4), 427-442

245. HEEP (2010) *Higher Education Enhancement Project*. Projects Management Unit [Online] http://www.heep.edu.eg [Accessed 19 October 2012].

246. HEFCE (2008) *Funding Higher Education in England. How HEFCE allocates its funds.* September 2008/33 Guide. Higher Education Funding Council for England

247. HEFCE. (2004). *Higher Education in the United Kingdom*, Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE), Guide, from http://www.hefce.ac.uk/pubs/hefce/2004/HEinUK/HEinUK.pdf

248. Heidelberg, H. C. H. M. (1994). The International Court of Justice *The Charter of The United Nations*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

249. Helal, H. (2008). Higher Education in Egypt: A Vision towards Quality Education: Tempus Conference on Quality Enhancement in Higher Education, Cairo, Egypt, 7-8 May 2008.

250. Helgy, I., and Homme, Anne, and Gewirtz, Sharon. (2007). Introduction to Special Issue Local Autonomy or State Control? Exploring the Effects of New Forms of Regulation in Education. *European Educational Research Journal, 6*(3 ), 198-202.

251. Helms, J. (1996). Saving the U. N.: A Challenge to the Next Secretary-General. *Foreign Affairs, 75*(5), 2-7.

252. Hendry, E. (2010). FEdS Business Forum Seminar: Assuring Quality in Higher Education: 20th April 2010, FEdS Business Forum.

253. HEQC. (2004). Criteria for Institutional Audits, from Council on Higher Education, Higher Education Quality Committee [Online] http://www.che.ac.za [Accessed Augus 31st 2012]

254. Herbst, M. (2007). *Financing Public Universities - The Case of Performance Funding*. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.

*255.* Heusser, R. (2008). The European Consortium for Accreditation Road Map Towards Mutual Recognition, *The Benefits of Mutual Recognition of Accreditation and Quality Assurance Decisions,* The European Consortium for Accreditation in Higher Education.

256. Hijden, P. V. D. (2008). Mapping the Diversity of European Higher Education: *The Benefits of Mutual Recognition of Accreditation and Quality Assurance Decisions*, The European Consortium for Accreditation in Higher Education.

257. Hill, Y., Lomas, L., and MacGregor, J. (2003). Students' perceptions of quality in higher education. *Quality Assurance in Education, 11*(1), 15-20.

258. Hobson, R., and Rolland, S., and Rotgans, J., and Schoonheim-Klein, M., and Best, H., and Chomyszyn-Gajewska, M., and Dymock, D., and Essop, R., and Hupp, J., and Kundzina, R., and Love, R., and Memon, R. A., and Moola, M., and Neumann, L., and Ozden, N., and Roth, K., and Samwel, P., and Villavicencio, J., and Wright, P., and Harzer, W. . (2008). Quality Assurance, Benchmarking, Assessment and Mutual International Recognition of Qualifications. *European Journal of Dental Education, 12*(1), 92-100.

259. Hodson, P. J., and Thomas, Harold G. (2001). Higher Education as an International Commodity: Ensuring Quality in Partnerships. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 26*(2), 101 - 112.

260. Hodson, P., and Thomas, Harold (2003). Quality Assurance in Higher Education: Fit for the New Millennium or Simply Year 2000 Compliant? *Higher Education, 45*(3), 375-387.

261. Hoecht, A. (2006). Quality Assurance in UK Higher Education: Issues of Trust, Control, Professional Autonomy and Accountability. *Higher Education, 51*( 4), 541-563.

262. Hogwood, B. W., and Gunn, Lewis A. . (1984). *Policy Analysis for the Real World*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

263. Holcombe, R. G., and Sobel, Russell S. . (1996). The Stability of International Coalitions in United Nations Voting from 1946 to 1973. *Public*

*Choice, 86*(1/2), 17-34.

264. Holloway, S. (1990). Forty Years of United Nations General Assembly Voting. *Canadian Journal of Political Science, 23*(2), 279-296

265. Holmes, M. T. E. (2008). Higher Education Reform in Egypt: Preparing Graduates for Egypt's Changing Political Economy. *Education, Business and Society: Contemporary Middle Eastern Issues, 1*(3), 175-185.

266. Holm-Nielsen, L. (2001) *Challenges for higher education systems*. [Online] http://siteresources.worldbank.org [Accessed 19 October 2012].

267. IAU. (2001). *Internationalisation of Higher Education: What for, How, and at What Cost?* from www.iau.org

268. IAU. (2005). *Sharing Quality Higher Education Across-Borders: The Role of Associations and Institutions*, from www.iau.org http://www.unesco.org/iau/conferences/alexandria/index.html

269. IAU. (2006). Internationalisation of Higher Education: New Directions, New challenges, Conference Programme, 12-15th October, Beijing: China, 2009, from http://www.iau.org/conferences

270. IAU. (2008). Building a Worldwide Community of Higher Education: Outline for an Action Plan for 2008-2012, Business Meetings, IAU 13th General Conference, Utrecht, The Netherlands, from www.iau.org/conferences

271. IAU. (2008). *E-Bulletin*. *5*(2, by e-mail from "IAU Information Centre" centre.iau@unesco.org <mailto:centre.iau@unesco.org>).

272. IAU. (2008). *E-Bulletin*. *5*(3, by e-mail from "IAU Information Centre" centre.iau@unesco.org <mailto:centre.iau@unesco.org>).

273. IAU. (2008). *E-Bulletin*. *5*(5, by e-mail from "IAU Information Centre" centre.iau@unesco.org <mailto:centre.iau@unesco.org>).

274. IAU. (2008). *E-Bulletin*. *5*(6, by e-mail from "IAU Information Centre" <centre.iau@unesco.org>).

275. IAU. (2008). *E-Bulletin*. *5*(8, by e-mail from "IAU Information Centre" centre.iau@unesco.org <mailto:centre.iau@unesco.org>).

276. IAU. (2008). *Equitable Access and Quality in Higher Education: A Policy Statement by the International Association of Universities* Paper presented at the The *IAU 13th General Conference*, Utrecht, The Netherlands, from http://www.iau.org>/conferences.

277. IAU. (2008). For a Worldwide Higher Education Community. *E-Bulletin, 5*(7).

278. IAU. (2008). *Parallel Workshops*. Paper presented at the Utrecht: The Netherlands Wednesday 16th July, from www.iau.org/conferences

279. IAU. (2009). *Egypt - Education System*, World Higher Education Database (WHED), from http://www.iau-aiu.net

280. IAU. (2009). *United Kingdom - Education System*, World Higher Education Database (WHED), from http://www.iau-aiu.net

281. Idris, K., and Bartolo, Michael (2000). *A better United Nations for the New Millennium: The United Nations System How it is Now and How it should be in the Future*: Martinus Nijhoff Publishers.

282. IEM. (2007). *Rules and Procedures*, International Engineering Meeting (IEM), Resulting from IEM Washington.

283. Iivari, H., and Hirschheim, Rudy. (1996). Analysing Information Systems Development: A Comparison and Analysis of Eight IS Development approaches. *Information Systems*, 21(7), 551-575.

284. Ingelheim, K. J. P., and Bonn, Brend Mutzelburg (1994). *Amendments: The Charter of The United Nations*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

285. INQAAHE, (2008a). *INQAAHE Bulletin*. *September, p.1*.

286. INQAAHE, (2008b). *Strategic Plan 2008-2012*, 2009, from www.inqaahe.org/docs/inqaahe strategic plan 2008-2012

287. INQAAHE. (2008c). *Constitution*, International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education, from http://www.inqaahe.org

288. INQAAHE. (2008d). *Strategic Plan 2008-2012*, from www.inqaahe.org/docs/inqaahe strategic plan 2008-2012

289. Jackson, N. (1998a). Understanding Standards-based Quality Assurance: Part I - Rationale and Conceptual Basis. *Quality Assurance in Education, 6*(3), 132-140.

290. Jackson, N. (1998b). Understanding Standards-based Quality Assurance: Part II - Nuts and Bolts of the "Dearing" Policy Framework. *Quality Assurance in Education, 6*(4), 220-231.

291. Jackson, N. J. (2000). The Concept of Programme Specification and its Application in the New Quality Assurance Framework. *Quality Assurance in Education, 8*(4), 164-172.

292. Jacob, W., and Rust, V. (2010). Principles of Good Governance: A Review of Key Themes Identified at the 7th International Workshop on Higher Education Reform. *Comparative & International Higher Education, 2*(2), 31-32.

293. James, F., and Paul, Smith (1998). Suppressive Influence of Weak Arguments in Mixed-Quality Messages: An Exploration of Mechanisms via Argument Rating, Pretesting, and Order Effects. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 20*( 4), 293-304

294. James, R. (2007). *Social equity in a mass, globalised higher education environment: the unresolved issue of widening access to university*. from Centre for the study of higher education: University of Melbourne. [Online] http://www.cshe.unimelb.edu.au [Accessed 20 September 2012]

295. Jayasuriya, K., and Robertson, S. L. . (2010). Regulatory Regionalism and the Governance of Higher Education. *Globalisation, Societies and Education, 8*(1), 1-6.

296. Jenkins, G. M., and Youle, P. V. (1971). *Systems Engineering*. London: C. A. Watts Co. Ltd.

297. Johansson, T. (2007). *Looking Out: The Bologna Process in a Global Setting*. *IAU Horizons, 13*(4), 1-4.

298. Johnson, R. A., Kast Fremont E. and Rosenzweig, James E. . (1964). Systems Theory and Management,. *Management Science, 10*(2), 367-384.

299. Johnstone, D. (2004). The economics and politics of cost sharing in higher education: comparative perspectives. *Economics of Education Review, 23*(4), 403-410.

300. Johnstone, D., and Marcucci, P. . (2007). *Worldwide Trends in Higher Education Finance: Cost-Sharing, Student Loans, and the support of Academic Research.* Paper presented at the UNESCO Forum on Higher Education, Research and Knowledge.

301. Johnstone, D., Arora, A., and Experton, W. . (1998). *The financing and management of higher education: A status report on worldwide reforms*. from World Bank. From www.worldbank.org [Accessed 20 September 2012]

302. Jongbloed, B. (2006). Strengthening Consumer Choice in Higher Education. In p. Teixeira, Johnstone, D., Rosa, M., and Vossensteyn, H. (Ed.), *Cost-sharing and Accessibility in Higher Education: A Fairer Deal? Higher Education dynamics*. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.

303. Jongbloed, B. (2008). *Funding higher education: a view from Europe.* Paper presented at the Paper prepared for the seminar Funding Higher Education: A Comparative Overview, Brasilia, October 13, 2008.

304. Jongbloed, B., De Boer, H., Enders, J., and File, J. . (2008). *Progress in Higher Education Reform Across Europe: Governance Reform*. Volume 1: Executive Summary and Main Report: Center for Higher Education Policy Studies.

305. Jun, E., Kim, and Wonjoon, and Chang, Soon Heung (2009). *The Analysis of Security Cost for Different Energy Sources*. *Applied Energy, 86*( 10), 1894-1901.

306. Kaiser, F., Vossensteyn, H., and Koelman, J. . (2001). *Public funding of higher education - A comparative study of funding mechanisms in ten countries*: Center for Higher Education Policy Studies

307. Kandeel, M. S., and Nasr, Mohamed and Abdel Razek, Monir (2006). Quality Assurance in Higher education: The Way to the Future: Quality Assurance and Accreditation Centre in Mansoura University, Egypt.

308. Kasvi, J. J. J., Vartiainen, M., Pulkkis, A., and Nieminen, M (2000). The Role of Information Support Systems in the Joint Optimization of Work Systems. *Human Factors and Ergonomics in Manufacturing & Service Industries, 10*(2), 193-221.

309. Kekale, J. (2000). Quality Assessment in Diverse Disciplinary Settings. *Higher Education, 40*(4), 465-488.

310. Kell, G., and Levin, D. . (2003). The Global Compact Network: An Historic Experiment in Learning and Action. *Business and Society Review, 8* (2), 152-165.

311. Kemenade, E. V., and Pupius, Mike, and Hardjono, Teun W. (2008). More Value to Defining Quality. *Quality in Higher Education, 14*(2), 176-185.

312. Kenawy, E. M. (2006). University Education and its Relation to Development in Egypt. *Journal of Applied Sciences Research, 12*(2), 1270-1284.

313. Kendall, K., E., and Kendall, Julie, E. (2002). *Systems Analysis and Design*. Fifth Edition, USA: Prentice Hall.

314. Kennedy, P., and Russett, Bruce (1995). Reforming the United Nations. *Foreign Affairs, 74*(5), 56-71.

315. Khalaf, F., and Said, Mosen Elmahdy (2003). Pathways to Higher Education PHE Egypt: Faculty of Engineering, Cairo University, Egypt.

316. Kidd, P. T. (1994). *Agile Manufacturing, Forging New Frontiers* New York: Adison-Wesley.

*317.* Kiel, J. D. (1994). Functions and Powers *The Charter of The United*

*Nations*

318. Kim, M. H., and Kim, Dongsoo, and Han, Yongseung (2008). The Impact of International Institutions on Bilateral Trade: Economic and Political. *Global Economy Journal, 8*(4, Article 3 from http://www.bepress.com/gej/vol8/iss4/3).

319. Kim, T. (2007). Trans-national Academic Mobility in a Global Knowledge Economy: Comparative and Historical Motifs. In D. Epstein, and Boden, Rebecca, and Deem, Rosemary, and Rizvi, Fazal, and Wright, Susan (Ed.), *World Year Book of Higher Education: Geographies of Knowledge, Geometries of Power: Framing The Future of Higher Education*. New York: Routledge

320. King, M. C. (1988). Interdisciplinary and Systems Thinking: Some Implications for Engineering and Education for Industry. *European Journal of Engineering Education, 13*(3), 235-244.

321. King, R. (2006) *Analysing the Higher Education Regulatory State*. The Centre for Analysis of Risk and Regulation, London School of Economics and Political Science.

322. King, U. (2007). Religious Education and Peace: An Overview and Response. *British Journal of Religious Education, 29*(1), 115-124.

323. Kirkpatrick, I. (2006). Taking Stock of the New Managerialism in English Social Services. *Social work and Society, 4* (1), 14-24.

324. Kis, V. (2005). Quality Assurance in Tertiary Education: Current Practices in OECD Countries and a Literature Review on Potential Effects. from A paper presented as a contribution to the OECD Thematic Review of Tertiary Education. [Online] http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/55/30/38006910.pdf [Accessed 23 September 2012]

325. Kistan, C. (1999). Quality Assurance in South Africa. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 7(3), 125-133.

326. Knight, J. (2005). *Cross-border Education*: Not just Students

327. Knight, J. (2009) *Financing Access and Equity in Higher Education. Global Perspectives on Higher Education* (pp. 1-18). Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publishers.

328. Kogan, M., and Hanney, S. . (2000). *Reforming Higher Education*. London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers Ltd.

329. Kohoutek, J. (2009). Quality Assurance in Higher Education: A Contentious Yet Intriguing Policy Issue. In J. Kohoutek (Ed.), *Studies on Higher Education: Implementation of Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in*

*Higher Education of Central and East-European Coutries - Agenda Ahead* (pp. 21-50). Bucharest: UNESCO - CEPES.

330. Konigswinter, H. C., and Wilhelm, G. Grewe (1994). The History of The United Nations, *The Charter of The United Nations*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

331. Kornwach, K., and Jacoby, K. (1996). *Information. New questions to a multidisciplinary concept*. Berlin: Akademie Verlag.

332. Kowalski, K., and Stagl, Sigrid, and Madlener, Reinhard, and Omann, Ines (2009). Sustainable Energy Futures: Methodological Challenges in Combining Scenarios and Participatory Multi-criteria Analysis. *European Journal of Operational Research, 197*(3), 1063-1074.

333. Kupfer, A. (2008). Diminished States? National Power in European Education Policy. *British Journal of Educational Studies, 56*(3), 286-303.

334. Kwiek, M. (2007). The University and the Welfare State in Transition: Changing Public Services in a Wider Context. In D. Epstein, and Boden, Rebecca, and Deem, Rosemary, and Rizvi, Fazal, and Wright, Susan (Ed.), *World Year Book of Higher Education: Geographies of Knowledge, Geometries of Power: Framing The Future of Higher Education*. New York: Routledge

335. Lacey, A., and Luff, D. (2007). *Qualitative Data Analysis*, from http://www.trentrdsu.org.uk/uploads/File/Qualitative_Data_Analysis_Revision_2007.pdf [Accessed: August 1st 2012

336. Lanf, D. W., and Zha, Qiang (2004). Comparing Universities: A Case Study between Canada and China. *Higher Education Policy, 17*( 4), 339-354.

337. LaRocque, N. (2008). Private Higher Education: Funding Issues: Conference on Private Higher Education, 18-19 November, Putrajaya, Malaysia.

338. Laszlo, E. (1996). *The systems view of the world: A holistic vision for our time (Advances in systems theory, complexity, and the human sciences)*. Cresskill: NJ: Hampton Press.

339. Law, D. (1997). National Library Initiatives: The U.K. Higher Education Experience. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship*, 127-131.

340. Layzell, D. (1991). Linking Performance to Funding Outcomes at the State Level for Public Institutions of Higher Education. *Research in Higher Education, 40*(2), 233-246.

341. Le Grand, J. (1991). *Equity and Choice: An Essay in Economics and Applied Philosophy*. London: HarperCollins Academic.

342. Le Grand, J. (2003). *Motivation, Agency, and Public Policy of Knights and Knaves, Pawns and Queens*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

343. Le Grand, J. (2007). *The Other Invisible Hand: Delivering Public Services through Choice and Competition*. New Jersey: Princeton University Press.

344. Le Grand, J., and Bartlett, W. . (1993). *Quasi-markets and social policy*. Basingstoke: Macmillan Press.

345. Lebovic, J. H. (2004). Uniting for Peace? Democracies and United Nations: Peace Operations after the Cold War. *Journal of Conflict Resolution, 48*( 6), 910-936.

346. Lee, B. S. (1984). *Basic Systems Analysis, 2nd edition*. London: Hutchinson Company Publishing Ltd.

347. Lee, D.-J., and Sirgy, M. Joseph, ( 1999). The Effect of Moral Philosophy and Ethnocentrism on Quality-of-Life Orientation in International Marketing: Dong-Jin Lee A Cross-Cultural Comparison *Journal of Business Ethics, 18*(1), 73-89.

348. Lee, H., and Knight, P. . (1996). *Transforming Higher Education*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

349. Lee, J. (2003). Higher Education: Who Benefits? , from NEA Higher Education Research Center, 9 (3): 1-4. [Online] http://www2.nea.org/he [Accessed 21 September 2012]

350. Lee, J. (2004). Higher Education and Privatization. from NEA Higher Education Research Center, 10 (2): 1-6. [Online] http://www2.nea.org/he/ [Accessed 21 September 2012]

351. Legard, R., and Keegan, Jill, and Ward, Kit. (2003). In-depth Interviews. In J. Ritchie, and Lewis, Jane (Ed.), *Qualitative Research Practice: A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers*. London: SAGE Publications.

352. Leimen, G. J. (1994). Organs. In *T. C. o. T. United Nations* (Ed.). New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

353. Leipzig, R. G. (1994). The Security Council, *The Charter of The United Nations*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

354. Lemaitre, M. J. (2008). The Latin-American Perspective, *The Benefits of Mutual Recognition of Accreditation and Quality Assurance Decisions,* The European Consortium for Accreditation in Higher Education.

355. Lenn, M. (2004). *Working Paper Series on Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Higher Education in East Asia and the Pacific*, World Bank, Paper No. 2004-6.

356. Lenn, M. P. (2008). *Higher Education and The Global Marketplace: A practical Guide to Sustaining Quality*, 2009, from http://www.oecd.org

357. Leslie, D. (1999). Quality Assurance and Student Work Experience. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 7( 4), 209-215.

358. Leveille, D. (2006). Accountability in Higher Education: A Public Agenda for Trust and Cultural change. from Research & Occasional Paper Series - A Report. Center for Studies in Higher Education: University of California, Berkeley [Online] http://www.eric.ed.gov/pdf [Accessed 21 September 2012]

*359.* Lindqvist, O. V. (2007). The Role of National Quality Assurance Agencies in Developing Coherent, Successful and Competitive Learning organisations in the European Higher Education Area *Council of Europe Higher Education Series No. 9, the Legitimacy of quality Assurance in Higher Education, Council of Europe Publishing.*

360. Linn, R. (2003). Presidential Address. Accountability: Responsibility and Reasonable Expectations. *Educational Researcher, 32* (7), 3-13.

361. Liu, G., Shah, Rachna, and Schroeder, Roger (2006). Linking Work Design to Mass Customization: A Sociotechnical Systems Perspective. *Decision Sciences*, *37*(4), 519-545.

362. Lock, A. (1999). Accreditation in Business Education. *Quality Assurance in Education*, *7*(2), 68-76.

363. Lofman, P., Pelkonen, M. and Pietila, A. . (2004). Ethical Issues in Participatory Action Research. *Scandinavian Journal of Caring Sciences*, 18(3), 333-340.

364. Lomas, L. (1999). The Culture and Quality of Higher Education Institutions: Examining the Links. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 7(1), 30-34.

365. Lomas, L. (2002). Does the Development of Mass Education Necessarily Mean the End of Quality? . *Quality in Higher Education, 8* (1), 71-79.

366. Lomas, L. (2003), *Embedding Quality: The Challenges for Higher Education*. Paper Presented at the European Conference on Educational Research, University of Hamburg.

367. Lomas, L. (2007). Zen, motorcycle maintenance and quality in higher education. *Quality Assurance in Education, 15*(4), 402-412.

368. Lopez-Segrera, A. F., Sanyal, and Bikas C., and Tres, Joaquim (2007). An Overview of Regional Perspectives on Accreditation in Today's World, *Higher Education in the World, Accreditation for Quality Assurance: What is at Stake? GUNI Series on the Social Commitment of Universities 2*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

369. Louisy, P. (2004). Whose Context and for What Quality? Informing Education Strategies for the Caribbean. *Compare, 34*(3), 285-292.

370. Mackenzie, N., and Knipe, S. . (2006). Research Dilemmas: Paradigms, Methods and Methodology. *Issues In Educational Research*, 16 (2), 193-205.

371. Marcucci, P., and Johnstone, D. . (2006). Tuition Policies in a Comparative Perspective: Theoretical and Political Rationales. In D. Johnstone (Ed.), *Financing Higher Education: Cost-Sharing in International Perspective* (pp. 55-74). Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publishers.

372. Marette, S., and Crespi, M. (2005). The Financing of Regulatory Agencies. *Journal of Regulatory Economics, 27*( 1), 95-113

373. Marginson, S. (2007). Have Global Academic Flows Created a Global Labour Market? . In D. Epstein, and Boden, Rebecca, and Deem, Rosemary, and Rizvi, Fazal, and Wright, Susan (Ed.), *World Year Book of Higher Education: Geographies of Knowledge, Geometries of Power: Framing The Future of Higher Education*. New York: Routledge.

374. Marshall, C. and Rossman, G. B. (1999) Designing Qualitative research, Sounsand Oaks: Sage Publications

375. Martin, J. N. (1997). *Systems Engineering Guidbook: A Process for Developing Systems and Products*. New York: CSC Press.

376. Mason, J. (1996). *Qualitative Researching*. London: Sage Publications.

377. Mason, J. (2002) Qualitative Researching, London: Sage Publications

378. Mason, J. (2002). *Qualitative Researching* (2 ed.). London: Sage.

379. Mathisen, G. (2007). Shaping the Global Market of Higher Education through Quality Promotion. In D. Epstein, and Boden, Rebecca, and Deem, Rosemary, and Rizvi, Fazal, and Wright, Susan (Ed.), *World Year Book of Higher Education: Geographies of Knowledge, Geometries of Power: Framing The Future of Higher Education*. New York: Routledge.

380. Mayes, T. (2006), Quality in an e-University. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 25 (5), 465-473.

381. Maykut, P., and Morehouse, Richard. (1994). *Designing Qualitative Research*. London: The Falmer Press.

382. Mayo, C. (1998). Foucauldian Cautions on the Subject and the Educative Implications of Contingent Identity. *Philosophy of Education, 11*(5), 15-23.

383. McAdam, R., and Welsh, William (2000). A Critical Review of the Business Excellence Quality Model Applied to Further Education Colleges. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 8(3), 120-130.

384. McCulloch, G. (2004). *Documentary Research in Education, History and the Social Sciences*. London: RoutledgeFalmer.

385. McGuinness, S. (2003). University Quality and Labour Market Outcomes. *Applied Economics, 35*(18), 1943-1955.

386. McGuire, P. A. (2009). Accreditations Benefits for Individuals and Institutions. *New Directions for Higher Education, 45*(1), 29-36.

387. McKay, J., and Kember, David. (1999). Quality Assurance System and Educational Development: Part 2- The need for Complementary Staff Development. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 7(3), 164-168.

388. Meyer, C. (2001). A Case in Case Study Methodology. *Field Methods*, 13 (4), 329-325.

389. Meyer, H. (2002). The New Managerialism in Education Management: Corporatization or Organisational Learning? *Journal of Education Administration, 40*(6), 534-551.

390. Michavila, F., and Zamorano Silvia (2007). Accreditation in the European Higher Education Area, *Higher Education in the World, Accreditation for Quality assurance: What is at Stake?* GUNI Series on the Social Commitment of Universities 2. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

391. Middlehurst, R. (1997) Quality Enhancement for Accountability and Transformation: A Framework for the Future. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 3 (1): 15-24.

392. Middleton, Chris. (2000) Models of State and Market in the Modernisation‘ of Higher Education. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 21 (4): 537-554.

393. Mingat, A., and Tan, J. . (1988). *Analytical Tools for Sector Work in Education*. Baltimore and London: The John Hopkins University Press.

394. Misˇcˇevic, N. (2006). Philosophy between Science and the Humanities. *Topoi, 25*(1-2), 57-61.

395. Mohamed, S. (2005). From Keeping Peace to Building Peace: A Proposal for a Revitalised United Nations Trusteeship Council. *Columbia Law Review, 105*(3), 809-840.

396. Molleman, G. R. M., and Peters, Louk W. H., and Hosman, Clemens M. H., and Kok, G. J. (2005). Implementation of a Quality Assurance Instrument (Preffi 1.0) to Improve the Effectiveness of Health Promotion in The Netherlands *Health Education Research, 20*( 4), 410-422.

397. Mollis, M. a. M., Simon (2002). The Assessment of Universities in Argentina and Australia: Between Autonomy and Heteronomy. *Higher Education, 43*(3), 311-330.

398. Montgomery, T. S. (1995). Getting to Peace in El Salvador: The Roles of the United Nations Secretariat and ONUSAL. *Journal of Interamerican Studies and World Affairs, 37*(4), 139-172

399. Moreland, N., Fawaid, A., and Dhillon, F. (2000). Quality Improvement in the TESOL Curriculum: A generic benchmarking approach. *Quality Assurance in Education, 8*(2), 57-62.

400. Morey, A. I. (2004). Globalisation and the Emergence of For-Profit Higher Education. *Higher Education, 48*(1), 131-150.

401. Morgan, A. (2006). Fired Up Over Academic Freedom. from [Online] http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/[Accessed 20 September 2012]

402. Mostafa, M. M. (2006). A Comparison of SERVQUAL and I-P Analysis: Measuring and Improving Service Quality in Egyptian Private Universities. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education, 16*( 2), 83-104.

403. Muller, J. W. (1992). *The Reform of The United Nations, Volume II*. New York: Oceana Publications, Inc.

404. Mundy, K. (2007). Global Governance and Educational Change. *Comparative Education Review, 43*(3), 339-357.

405. Munger, M. (2000). *Analyzing Policy: Choices, Conflicts and Practices*. USA: Norton Company Inc.

406. Naidoo, R. (2007). Higher Education: A Powerhouse for Development in a Neo-liberal Age? In D. Epstein, and Boden, Rebecca, and Deem, Rosemary, and Rizvi, Fazal, and Wright, Susan (Ed.), *World Year Book of Higher Education: Geographies of Knowledge, Geometries of Power: Framing The Future of Higher Education*. New York: Routledge.

407. Naidoo, V. (2005). *Strengthening International Education in New*

*Zealand*. The Boston College Centre for International Higher Education, Fall 2005, Number 41.

408. Naikar, N. (2006). Beyond Interface Design: Further Applications of Cognitive Work Analysis. *International Journal of Industrial Ergonomics, 36*(5), 423-438.

409. NAQAAE (2011) *National Authority for Quality Assurance & Accreditation of Education – Arab Republic of Egypt* [Online] http://www.naqaae.org.eg[Accessed 19 October 2012].

410. National Conference on Higher Education (2000) *Strategic Plan for Reforming Higher Education*. Cairo: Ministry of Higher Education.

411. Naumann, J. D., and Jenkins, A. Milton (1982). Prototyping: The New Paradigm for Systems Development. *MIS Quarterly, 6*(3), 29-49.

412. Nayebpour, M. R., and Koehn, Daryl (2003). The Ethics of Quality: Problems and Preconditions. *Journal of Business Ethics, 44*(1), 37-48.

413. Nayyar, D. (2008). Globalisation and Markets: Challenges for Higher Education *Higher Education: New Challenges and Emerging Roles for Human and Social Development,* GUNI Series on the Social Commitment of Universities 3. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

414. Nazif, A. (2006). Speech by Prime Minister of Egypt At the Official Launch of the Egyptian Education Initiative World Economic Forum on the Middle, May 20, Sharm of Sheikh, Egypt.

415. Necco, C. R., Gordon, Carl L. and Tsai, Nancy W. . (1978). Systems Analysis and Design: Current Practices. *MIS Quarterly, 11*(4), 461-467.

416. Newton, J. (2002), Views from Blow: Academics Coping with Quality. *Quality in Higher Education*, 8 (1), 173-187.

417. Newton, J. (2007) What is Quality. In *Embedding Quality Culture in Higher Education*: A Selection of Papers from The 1st European Forum For Quality Assurance. European University Association. Brussels, Belgium.

418. Neyland, D. (2007) Achieving Transparency: The Visible, Invisible and Divisible in Academic Accountability Networks. *Organization*, 14 (4): 499-516.

419. O'keefe, R. M. (1996). MS/OR Enabled Systems Design. *Operations Research, 43*(2), 199-207.

420. O'Toole, L. J., and Meier, Kenneth J. (2004). Parkinson's Law and the New Public Management? Contracting Determinants and Service-Quality Consequences in Public Education. *Public Administration Review, 64*(3), 342-

352.

421. Oakley, A. (2000). *Experiments in Knowing, Gender And Method In The Social Sciences*: Cambridge: Polity Press.

422. O'Connor, J. (1997). *The Art of Systems Thinking: Essential Skills for Creativity and Problem Solving*. London: Thorsons.

423. OECD and The World Bank. (2010). *Reviews of National Policies for Education: Higher Education in Egypt.* Paper presented at the OECD and IBRD/World Bank.

424. OECD. (2003). *OECD Review of Financing and Quality Assurance Reforms in Higher Education in The People's Republic of China,* Centre for Co-operation with non-members Directorate for Education. from http://www.oecd.org

425. OECD. (2004). *Surveys of Higher Education Systems*, from http://www.oecd.org/imhe

426. OECD. (2005). *Guidelines for Quality Provision in Cross-Border Higher Education*, from http://www.oecd.org/highereducation

427. OECD. (2007). *Economic Surveys: United Kingdom,* Available at www.oecd.org/publishing/corrigenda.

428. OECD. (2008). *Tertiary Education for the Knowledge Society*. from OECD Thematic Review of Tertiary Education: Synthesis Report. [Online] http://oecd-conferenceteks [Accessed 21 September 2012]

429. OECD. (2010a). *Reviews of National Policies for Education: Higher Education in Egypt*: Available at www.oecd.org.

430. OECD. (2010b). *Education Today 2010: The OECD Perspective.* Paper presented at the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris.

431. Okebukola, P., and Shabani Juma. (2007). Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Higher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa *Higher Education in the World, Accreditation for Quality Assurance: What is at Stake?* GUNI Series on the Social Commitment of Universities 2. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

432. Oldfield, B. M., and Baron, Steve (2000). Student Perceptions of Service Quality in a UK University Business and Management Faculty. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 8( 2), 85-95.

433. Osmani, M., and O'Reilly, Alistair (2009). Feasibility of Zero Carbon Homes in England by 2016: A House Builder's Perspective. *Building and*

*Environment*, *44*(9), 1917-1924.

434. Ottewill, R., and Gregory, Anthea (1999). Beyond Quality Assessment: Reflecting on the Experience of Introducing Unit Portfolios at Sheffield Hallam University. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 7( 4), 190-196.

435. Özdaml, F., and Hürsen, Cigdem, and Özçinar, Zehra (2009). Teacher Candidates' Attitudes towards the Instructional Technologies, *World Conference on Educational Sciences 2009*, Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences 1 (2009) 455-463

436. Ozturk, I. (2001). The Role of Education in Economic Development: A Theoretical Perspective. *Journal of Rural Development and Administration, XXXIII* (1), 39-47.

437. Pahl, G., and Beitz, W. (1996). *Engineering Design: A Systematic Approach*. London: Paul Chapman.

438. Paris, U. K. (1994). Miscellaneous Provisions, *The Charter of The United Nations*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

439. Parr, J. L. (1998). Accreditation for United States environmental laboratories. *Accreditation and Quality Assurance, 3*(9), 376-378.

440. Partington, P., and Brown, George. (1997). Quality Assessment, Staff Development and Cultural Change. *Quality Assurance in Education, 5*(4), 208-217.

441. Patrick, W. J., and Stanley, Elizabeth C. . (1996). Assessment of Research Quality. *Research in Higher Education*, *37*(1), 23-42.

442. Patton, M. (2002). *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods* (3 ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

443. Paulson, C. (2004). Compliance with Final Judgements of the International Court of Justice since 1978. *The American Journal of International Law*, *98*(3), 434-461.

444. People's Assembly (2006) *Law No.82 of 2006 for Establishing the National Authority for Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Education*. [Online] http://www.naqaae.eg [Accessed 19 October 2012].

445. Peston, M. (1980). Accountability in Education: Some Economic Aspects. *Education Policy Bulletin, 8* (2), 115-126.

446. Peters, P. A., and Hall, G. Brent. (2004). Evaluation of Education Quality and Neighbourhood Well-being: A Case Study of Independencia, Peru. *International Journal of Educational Development*, *24*(1), 85-102.

447. Peterson, M. W., and Augustine, Catherine H.. . (2000). External and Internal Influences on Institutional Approaches to Student Assessment: Accountability or Improvement? *Research in Higher Education, 41*( 4 ), 443-479.

448. Pierson, P. (2000) Increasing Returns, Path Dependence, and the Study of Politics. *The American Political Science Review*, 94 (2): 251-267.

449. Piot, C. (2001). Agency Costs and Audit Quality: Evidence from France. *The European Accounting Review, 10*(3), 461-499.

450. Poole, B. (2005). Quality Problems. *English Today, 21*( 4), 32-35.

451. Poole, D. L., and Davis, Jill K., and Reisman, Jane, and Nelson, Joan E. (2001). Improving the Quality of Outcome Evaluation Plans. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership, 11*( 4), 405-421.

452. Porter, R. S. (1966). The United Nations System of National Accounts in the Middle East. *Review of Income & Wealth, 12*(2), 143-157.

453. Post, D., and Clipper, Lutitia, and Enkhbaatar, D., and Manning, Anitra, and Riley, Thomas, and Zaman, Husam (2004). World Bank Okays Public Interest in Higher Education. *Higher Education, 48*(2), 213-229.

454. Pounder, J. (1999). Institutional Performance in Higher Education: Is Quality a Relevant Concept? *Quality Assurance in Education, 7*( 3), 156-163.

455. President Mubarak, M. H. (2004). *Education Development*, Speech by President Mubarak on Education Development, Wednesday September 01, from http://www.sis.gov.eg

456. Pring, R. (2000*). Philosophy of Educational Research*: London: Continuum.

457. Prosek, M., and Golc-Wondra, Alenka, and Krasnja, Adolf (1998). QASKI - The Quality Assurance System of the National Institute of Chemistry *Accreditation and Quality Assurance, 3*(1), 499-502.

458. Psacharopoulos, G., and Patrinos, H. . (2004). Returns to Investment in Education: a further update. *Education Economics, 12* (2), 111-134.

459. Purser, L. (2007). The Role of Public Authorities and Institutions: Towards Conclusions and Recommendations *Council of Europe Higher Education Series No. 9, the Legitimacy of quality Assurance in Higher Education*: Council of Europe Publishing.

460. QAA (2005) *Quality Assurance in UK Higher Education: A guide for International Readers*. Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education.

461. QAA. (2000), *Handbook for Academic Review*. Gloucester: Quality

Assurance Agency for Higher Education.

462. QAA. (2002), *Handbook for Institutional Audit: England*. Gloucester: Quality assurance Agency for Higher Education.

463. QAA. (2003), *A Brief Guide to Quality Assurance in UK Higher Education*. Gloucester: Quality assurance Agency for Higher Education.

464. QAA. (2004), *Code of Practice for the Assurance of Academic Quality and Standards in Higher Education*. Gloucester: Quality assurance Agency for Higher Education.

465. QAA. (2006), *Draft Handbook for the Revised Institutional Audit Process for Higher Education Institutions in England and Northern Ireland*. Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education.

466. QAA. (2009). *An Introduction to QAA*, the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education, 2010, from http://www.qaa.ac.uk/aboutus (Accessed 18/10/2012)

467. QAA. (2010). Guidelines for Preparing Programme Specifications, from http://www.qaa.ac.uk/academicinfrastructure (Accessed 18/10/2012)

468. QAAC (2008b) Quality and Accreditation: The Present and Prospective. *The First International Conference of the Quality Assurance and Accreditation Center, Conference Agenda*. QAAC, Cairo University.

469. QAAP (2007) *The Quality Assurance and Accreditation Handbook for Higher Education in Egypt*. 2nd edition. Ministry of Higher Education: HEEP, Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project.

470. QAAP (2008a) *QAAP Final Report Executive Summary 2002-2008*. Ministry of Higher Education: HEEP, Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project.

471. QAAP. (2004a). *The Quality Assurance and Accreditation Handbook for Higher Education in Egypt*. Egypt: Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP), Higher Education Enhancement Project (HEEP), Projects Management Unit (PMU), Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE).

472. QAAP. (2004b). *Newsletter, Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP), No. 1, January 2004*: Ministry of Higher Education, Egypt.

473. QAAP. (2006). *Quarterly Progress Report*. Egypt: *Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP)*, Q4: 2006, Higher Education Enhancement Project (HEEP), Projects Management Unit (PMU), Ministry of Higher Education

474. QAAP. (2007). *Quarterly Progress Report*. Egypt: Quality Assurance and

Accreditation Project (QAAP), Q1: 2007, Higher Education Enhancement Project (HEEP), Projects Management Unit (PMU), Ministry of Higher Education.

475. QAAP. (2007a). *The Quality Assurance and Accreditation Handbook for Higher Education in Egypt*. Ministry of Higher Education: Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project.

476. Raar, J. (2009). The New Global Accounting Community: Rationale for Dialogue to Establish its Accountability? . *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 20*(4), 509-527.

477. Raffe, D. (2011) *Policy borrowing or policy learning? How to improve education systems.* Centre for Educational Sociology: The University of Edinburgh, No.57.

478. Randor, H. (1994) *Collecting and Analysing Interview Data. Educational Research Monograph Series* (3 ed.). University of Exeter: Research Support Unit.

479. RCUK (2011) *Research Councils UK* [Online] http://www.rcuk.ac.uk [Accessed 18 October 2012].

480. Reilly, N. B. (1993). *Successful Systems Engineering and Managers*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

481. Reiman, T., and Oedewald, Pia (2007). Assessment of Complex Sociotechnical Systems - Theoretical Issues Concerning the Use of Organizational Culture and Organizational Core Task Concepts. *Safety Science, 45*(3), 745-768.

482. Rhoades, G., and Sporn, Barbara (2002). Quality Assurance in Europe and the U.S.: Professional and Political Economic framing of Higher Education Policy. *Higher Education, 43*(3), 355-390.

483. Richards, A. (1992). Higher Education in Egypt: Education and Employment, Population and Human Resources Department, The World Bank, WPS 862.

484. Richards, L. (1999). *Using NVIVO in Qualitative Research*. London: SAGE Publications.

485. Richmond, O. P. (2004). UN Peace Operations and the Dilemmas of the Peacebuilding Consensus. *International Peacekeeping, 11*(1), 83-101.

486. Richmond, O. P. (2008). Reclaiming Peace in International Relations, Millennium. *Journal of International Studies, 36*(3), 439-470.

487. Riessman, C. K. (1993). *Qualitative Research Methods*. London: Sage Publications.

488. Riggs, R. E. and Plano, P. J. C. (1994). *The United Nations: International Organization and World Politics, Second Edition*. USA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

489. Ritchie, J., and Lewis, Jane. (2003). *Qualitative Research Practice*. London: Sage Publications.

490. Ritchie, J., and Spencer, L (1994). Qualitative data analysis for applied policy research. In A. Bryman, and Burgess, R. (Ed.), *Analysing Qualitative Data* (pp. 173-194). London: Routledge.

491. Ritchis, J., and Lewis, J. . (2007). *Qualitative Research Practice*. Washington, D.C: Library of Congress Press.

492. Robert, R. (2002). Proficiency Testing and External Quality Assurance: Crossing Borders and Disciplines. *Accreditation and Quality Assurance, 7*(8-9), 335-340.

493. Robert, R. (2004) The Quest for Appropriate Accountability: Stakeholders, Tradition and the Managerial Prerogative in Higher Education. *Studies in Christian Ethics*, 17 (1): 1-21.

494. Robson, C. (2002). *Real World Research* (2 ed.). London: Blackwell Publishing.

495. Rosa, M. J., and Saraiva, Pedro M., and Diz, Henrique. (2005). Defining Strategic and Excellence Bases for the Development of Portuguese Higher Education. *European Journal of Education: Research, Development and Policies, 40*(2), 205-221.

496. Rosenau, J. (1998). The Addaptation of the United Nations to a Turbulent World. In R. Thakur (Ed.), *Past Imperfect, Future Uncertain: The United Nations at Fifty*. London: Macmillan Press Ltd.

497. Rubin, H. J., and Rubin, Irene S. (2005). *Qualitative Interviewing: The Art of Hearing Data* (2 ed.). London: SAGE Publications.

498. Rushton, S. (2008). The UN Secretary-General and Norm Entrepreneurship: Boutros Boutros-Ghali and Democracy Promotion. *Global Governance, 14*(1), 95-110

499. Ryan, S. (2000). *The United Nations and International Politics*. London: Macmillan Press Lts.

500. Said, M. (2001). *Higher Education in Egypt*. Projects Implementation Unit: Ministry of Higher Education, Egypt.

501. Said, M. (2008a) *Higher Education Reform Efforts in Egypt: A focus on Governance & Finance*. [Online] http://mhespu. org.pdf [Accessed 19 October 2012].

502. Said, M. E. (2008b). *Philosophy of Reforming Higher Education in Egypt and the Road Ahead*. Paper presented at the the Projects Management Unit, Ministry of Higher Education, Egypt: February 23-24, 2008.

503. Salerno, C. (2004). Public Money and Private Providers: Funding Channels and National Patterns in Four Countries. *Higher Education, 48*( 1), 101-130.

504. Salerno, C. (2005). Financing Higher Education: The Economics of Options, Tradeoffs and Dilemmas. In L. Weber, and Bergan, S. (Ed.), *The Public Responsibility for Higher Education and Research*. Strasbourg, Cedex: Council of Europe Publishing.

505. Sallis, E. (2002). *Total Quality Management in Education* (3 ed.). London: Kogan Page.

506. Salzburg, W. K. (1994). *Purposes and Principles The Charter of The United Nations*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

507. Sanyal, B. C. (2007). Steps to Setting up an Accreditation Agency *Higher Education in the World, Accreditation for Quality assurance: What is at Stake? GUNI Series on the Social Commitment of Universities 2*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

508. Sanyal, B. C., and Martin Michaela (2007). Quality Assurance and the Role of Accreditation *Higher Education in the World, Accreditation for Quality assurance: What is at Stake? GUNI Series on the Social Commitment of Universities 2*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

509. Sanyal, B., and Johnstone, D. (2011). International Trends in the public and private financing of higher education. *Prospects, 42* (1), 157-175.

510. Sari, R., and Soytas, Ugur. (2009). Are Global Warming and Economic Growth Compatible? Evidence from Five OPEC Countries? *Applied Energy, 86*(10), 1887-1893.

511. Sayre, F. B. (1948). Legal Problems Arising from the United Nations Trusteeship System. *The American Journal of International Law, 42*(2), 263-298.

512. Schachter, O. (1994). United Nations Law. *The American Journal of*

*International Law, 88*(1), 1-33.

513. Scherer, R. F., and Javalgi Rajshekhar (Raj) G., and Bryant, Michael, and Tukel, Oya. (2005). Challenges of AACSB International Accreditation for Business Schools in the United States and Europe. *Thunderbird International Business Review, 47*(6), 651-669.

514. Schmidt, A., and Örnemark, Ulf, and Golze, Manfred, and Henriksen, Gitte. (2006). Surveys on the Accreditation of Providers of Proficiency Testing and External Quality Assessment Schemes. *Accreditation and Quality Assurance, 11*(8-9), 379-384

515. Schoenenberger, A. (2005). Are Higher Education and Academic Research a Public Good or a Public Responsibility? A Review of the Economic Literature. In L. Weber, and Bergan, S. (Ed.), *The Public Responsibility for Higher Education and Research*. Strasbourg, Cedex: Council of Europe Publishing.

516. Schofield, R. (2006). Different Models for Student Assessment under Egyptian Constraints: Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP), Ministry of Higher Education, Egypt.

517. Schostak, J. (2006). *Interviewing and Representation in Qualitative Research*. England: Open University Press.

518. Senge, P. M. (1990). *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization*: Bantam Doubleday Dell Publishing Group, Inc.

519. Shall, M. M. (2007). The African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education and the Integration of Higher Education Systems in the Member Countries, *Higher Education in the World, Accreditation for Quality Assurance: What is at Stake?* GUNI Series on the Social Commitment of Universities 2. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

520. Shann, M. H. (1992). The Reform of Higher Education in Egypt. *Higher Education, 24*(2), 225-246.

521. Sharma, V. (2005). Commercialisation of Higher Education in India. *Social Scientist, 33*(9/10), 65-74.

522. Shinyo, T. (1998). Reforming the Security Council. In R. Thakur (Ed.), *Past Imperfect, Future Uncertain: The United Nations at Fifty*. London: Macmillan Press Ltd.

523. Siloaho, M., and Anttalainen, Eija, and Kociba, Pirkko. (2001). A Pilot Experiment of Joint Assessments by Accreditation and Certification Bodies in Clinical Laboratories. *Accreditation and Quality Assurance, 6*(6), 272-273.

524. Silverman, D. (2000). *Doing Qualitative Research: A Practical Hand Book*. London: SAGE Publications.

525. Silverman, D. (2001). *Interpreting Qualitative Data: Methods for Analysing Talk, Text and Interaction*. London: SAGE Publications.

526. Silverman, D. (2005). *Doing Qualitative Research. A Practical Handbook* (2 ed.). London: SAGE Publications.

527. Simma, B. (1994). *The Charter of the United Nations*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

528. Simons, G. (1994). *The United Nations: A Chronology of Conflict*. London: Macmillan Press Ltd.

529. Singh, M. (2007). The Governance of Accreditation *Higher Education in the World, Accreditation for Quality assurance: What is at Stake? GUNI Series on the Social Commitment of Universities 2*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

530. Singh, N. (1993). The UN and the Development of International Law. In A. Roberts, and Kingsbury, Benedict (Ed.), *United Nations, Divided World: The UN Roles in International Relations,* Second Edition. New York: Oxford University Press.

531. Singh, N. (1996). *Systems Approach to Computer-Integrated Design and Manufacturing*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

532. Singh, R., Gernacyn Krist V. and Gani, Rafiqul ( 2009 ). Model-based Computer-aided Framework for Design of Process Monitoring and Analysis Systems. *Computers and Chemical Engineering*,, 33(1), 22-42.

533. Sliem, Z. (2006) The Experience of Establishing a National Quality Assurance System in Higher Education in Egypt. A paper presented in *the 18th Annual Conference for Political Research in Egypt, "Higher Education in Egypt: The Status Quo and the Future".*

534. Smeyers, P. (2001). Qualitative Versus Quantitative Research Design: A Plea for Paradigmatic Tolerance in Educational Research. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 35(3), 477-495.

535. Smith, W. J., and Ngoma-Maema, and Yolisa, Wendy (2003). Education for All in South Africa: Developing a National System for Quality Assurance. *Comparative Education Review, 39*(3), 345-365.

536. Snyder, M. (2002 ). A Question of Autonomy: The View from Salzburg. from Academe Online, 88 (3). [Online] http://www.aaup.org/htm [Accessed 20 September 2012]

*537.* Sobrinho, J. D. (2007). Accreditation of Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean, *Higher Education in the World, Accreditation for Quality Assurance: What is at Stake?* GUNI Series on the Social Commitment of Universities 2, New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

538. Sohn, L. B. (1956). Repertory of Practice of United Nations Organs (Book). *Harvard Law Review, 69*(7), 1538.

539. Sparkes, A. (1992). *Research in Physical Education and Sport: Exploring Alternative Visions*. London: The Falmer Press.

540. Speyer, S. M. (1994). The General Assembly, *The Charter of The United Nations*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

541. Squires, G. (1992). Interdisciplinarity in Higher Education in the United Kingdom. *European Journal of Education, 27*(3), 201-210.

542. Stake, R. E. (1995). *The Art of Case Study Research*. London: SAGE Publications.

543. Steffen, B. ( 2002). The Flexible Scope of Accreditation *Accreditation and Quality Assurance, 7*(1), 25-28.

544. Steinhorst, A. ( 1998). Accreditation of Types of Tests. *Accreditation and Quality Assurance, 3*(7), 294-295.

545. Stella, A. (2007). Accreditation of Higher Education in the Asia-Pacific Region, *Higher Education in the World, Accreditation for Quality assurance: What is at Stake? GUNI Series on the Social Commitment of Universities 2*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

546. Stensaker, B. (2003). Trance, Transparency and Transformation: the impact of external quality monitoring on higher education. *Quality in Higher Education*, 9 (2), 151-159.

547. Stevens, R., Brook, P., Jackson, K., and Arnold, S. (1998). *System Engineering - Coping with complexity*: Prentice Hall Europe.

548. Stohl, M. (2007). We Have Met the Enemy and He is Us: The Role of the Faculty in the Internationalization of Higher Education in the Coming Decade. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 11* (3/4), 359-372.

549. Suter, K. (1998). Reforming the United Nations. In Thakur, R. (Ed.), *Past Imperfect, Future Uncertain: The United Nations at Fifty*. London: Macmillan

Press Ltd.

550. Swanson, E. B., and Beath, Cynthia M. . (1989). Reconstructing the Systems Development Organisation. *MIS Quarterly, 13*(3), 293-307.

551. Tait, A. (1997). *Quality Assurance in Higher Education: Selected Case Studies*, Vancouver: The Commonwealth of Learning.

552. Tanabe, C. (1999). Social Power and Education. *Philosophy of Education 14*(1), 40-53.

553. Tannenwald, N. (2004). The UN and Debates Over Weapons of Mass Destruction. In Price, R. M., and Zacher, Mark W. (Ed.), *The United Nations and Global Security*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

554. Tapper, E. R., and Salter, B.G. (1998). The Dearing Report and the Maintenance of Academic Standards: Towards a New Academic Corporatism. *Higher Education Quarterly, 52*(1), 22-34.

555. Tatsiopoulos, I. P. (1990). Requirements Analysis of Production Management Software Systems. *Computer Integrated Manufacturing Systems, 3*(4), 207-215

556. Taylor, J. (2003). Sticks and Carrots: The Effectiveness of Government Policy On Higher Education In England Since 1979. *Higher Education Management and Policy, 15*(1), 91-103.

557. Teferra, D., and Altbach, Philip G. (2004). African Higher Education: Challenges for the 21st Century. *Higher Education, 47*( 1), 21-50.

558. Teichler, U. (2004). The Changing Debate on Internationalisation of Higher Education. *Higher Education, 48*( 1), 5-26.

559. Teijlingen, E., and Hundley, V. . (2002). The Importance of Pilot Studies. *Nursing Standard*, 40(16 ), 33-36.

560. Temple, P. (2006). Intervention in a Higher Education Market: a Case Study. *Higher Education Quarterly, 60* (3), 257-269

561. Templeton, M. (1998). The Achievements and Shortcomings of the United Nations. In Thakur, R. (Ed.), *Past Imperfect, Future Uncertain: The United Nations at Fifty*. London: Macmillan Press Ltd.

562. Tempus. (2001). Glossary of the terms related to quality assurance. Development of Quality Assurance System in Higher Education. from http://www.unizg.hr/tempusprojects/glossary.htm [Accessed 22 September 2012].

563. The Boston College Centre for International Higher Education, *Fall 2005*, Number 41.

564. The World Bank (2007) *Arab Republic of Egypt. Improving Quality, Equality, and Efficiency in the Education Sector: Fostering a Complete Generation of Youth.* MNSHD, Human Development Department, Middle East and North Africa Region. Document of the World Bank. Report No.42863-EG. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.

565. The World Bank (2008) *Arab Republic of Egypt. Higher Education Enhancement Project Supervision (IBRD Loan No.46580-EGT).* Aide Memoire, World Bank Higher Education Mission, January 13-24, 2008. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.

566. The World Bank (2009a) *Implementation Completion and Results Report (IBRD-46580) on the Credit in the Amount of US$50 Million to the Arab Republic of Egypt for a Higher Education Enhancement Project*. Report No.ICR00001154. Washington, D.C.: The World Bank.

567. The World Bank. (2002). *Quality Assurance: A Chronology of Changes,* Washington: Human Development Network, 2009, from http://www.worldbank.org

568. The World Bank. (2004). Middle East and North Africa Region - Egypt: Washington, DC, Available at www.worldbank.org.

569. The World Bank. (2009b). MENA Flagship Report on Education, the Road Not Traveled: Education Reform in the Middle East and North Africa: Available at www.worldbank.org.

570. Therien, E., and Pouliot, V. (2006). The Global Compact: Shifting the Politics of International Development? . *Global Governance, 12*(1), 55-75.

571. Thomas, G. (2009). *How to do your Research Project: A guide for students in education and applied social sciences*. London: Sage.

572. Thomas, H. (1990). *Education Costs and Performance: A Cost-Effectiveness Analysis*. London: Cassel Educational Limited.

573. Thomas, H. (2003). The Arguments for and the Meaning of Quality. *ELT Journal, 57*(3), 234-241.

574. Thomas, H. (2005) Education and Modernization. *Educational Review*, 57 (2): 235-245.

575. Thomas, H., and Hodson, Peter (2003). Quality Assurance in Higher Education: Fit for the New Millennium or Simply Years 2000 Complaint? .

*Higher Education, 45*(3), 375-387.

576. Thorens, J. (1998). Academic Freedom and University Autonomy. *Prospectus, XXVIII*(3), 401-407.

577. Tierney, W., and Dilley, P. . (2002). Interviewing in Education. In J. Gubrium, and Holstein, J. (Ed.), *Handbook of Interview Research*: Context and Method. London: Sage.

578. Touati, N., and Pomey, Marie-Pascale. (2009). Accreditation at a Crossroads: Are we on the Right Track? *Health Policy, 90*(2-3), 156-165.

579. TQA, (2010). Code of Good Practice - Annual Review of Modules: University of Exeter.

580. Trochim, W. (2001). *The Research Methods Knowledge Base* USA: Saint Louis, MO.

581. Troman, G. (2000). Teacher Stress in the Low-Trust Society. *British Journal of Sociology of Education, 21*(3), 331-353.

582. Trowler, P. (2009). *The Question of Morale. Managing Happiness and Unhappiness in University Life*. Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill: Open University Press.

583. Tsai, L.-Y., and Li, In-Fun, and Liu, Ching-Ping, and Su, Wen-Hao, and Change, Tse-Yun (2008). Application of Quality Audit Tools to Evaluate Care Quality. *Support Care Cancer, 16*(1), 1067-1074.

584. Tsuzuki, Y. (2009). Comparison of Pollutant Discharge Per Capita (PDC) and its Relationships with Economic Development: An Indicator for Ambient Water Quality Improvement as well as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) Sanitation Indicator. *Ecological Indicators, 9*(5), 971-981.

585. Tulip, P. (2007). Financing Higher Education in the United States. from OECD Economics Department Working Papers, No. 584, OECD Publishing. [Online] http://dx.doi.org/ [Accessed 20 September 2012]

586. Turjansky, T., and Morris, Stuart (2009). Using Programme Approval and Review as a Tool for the Systematic Enhancement of Teaching and Learning. *NEXUS Journal of Learning & Teaching Research, 1*(January), 148-165.

587. Turner, D. (2004). Privatisation, Decentralisation and Education in the United Kingdom: The Role of the State. *International Review of Education, 50*(3/4), 347-357.

588. Underwood, S. (2000). Assessing the Quality of Quality Assessment: the Inspection of Teaching and Learning in British universities. *Journal of Education*

*for Teaching, 26*(1), 73 - 91.

589. UNESCO. (1992). *Papers on Higher Education: Accreditation and Quality Assurance in Higher Education,* CEPES.

590. UNESCO. (2000). *Expert Meeting: The Impact of Globalisation on Higher Education,* 2009, from http://www.unesco.org/education/globalisation

591. UNESCO. (2002). Globalisation and Higher Education. Paper presented at the Final Report on the *First Global Forum on International Quality Assurance, Accreditation and the Recognition of Qualifications in Higher Education,* 17-18 October, Paris, . http://www.unesco.org/conferences

592. UNESCO. (2003). *Legal Texts on National Commissions for UNESCO: Article VII of UNESCO's Constitution*. Paper presented at the The Charter of National Commissions for UNESCO and the Relevant Resolutions of the General Conference Adopted since 1978, Sector for External Relations and Cooperation Division of Relations with National Commissions and New Partnership (ERC/NCP). http://www.unesco.org/ncp/natcom

593. UNESCO. (2004). *Widening Access to Quality Higher Education*. Paper presented at the *Second Global Forum on International Quality Assurance, Accreditation and the Recognition of Qualifications in Higher Education*, 28-29 June, Paris. http://www.unesco.org/conferences

594. UNESCO. (2005). *Records of the General Conference,* Resolution, 33rd Session, 3-21 October 2005, Paris, from www.unesco.org/confgen

595. UNESCO. (2007a). *Abstract of Papers*. Paper presented at the *The Third Global Forum on International Quality Assurance, Accreditation and the Recognition of Qualifications in Higher Education,* 13-14 September, Tanzania. http://www.unesco.org/conferences

596. UNESCO. (2007b). *Learners and New Higher Education Spaces: Challenges for Quality Assurance and the Recognition of Qualifications*. Paper presented at the *The Third Global Forum on International Quality Assurance, Accreditation and the Recognition of Qualifications in Higher Education*, 13-14 September, Tanzania. http://www.unesco.org/conferences

597. UNESCO. (2008a). *Decisions Adopted by the Executive Board at its 18th session,* Executive Board, 180 EX/Decisions, 17th November 2008, Paris, 2009, from www.unesco.org/exboard

598. UNESCO. (2008b). *Governance Terms,* Global Initiative for Quality Assurance Capacity (GIQAC), Paris: ED/HED/RIQ/2008/PI/24, 2009, from

http://www.unesco.org

599. UNESCO. (2008c). *UNESCO*, from http://www.unesco.org/publishing

600. UNESCO. (2009 a). Statement on Investing in Adult Education: Building Learning and Knowledge Societies in the Arab States: CONFINTEA VI, Preparatory Conference in the Arab States ,Tunis, Tunisia, 5 - 7 January

601. UNESCO. (2009). Brain Gain Initiative: A Digital Infrastructure Linking African and Arab Region Universities to Global Knowledge. *Paper presented at the UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education*, from 5 to 8 July, Paris. http://www.unesco.org

602. United Nation Millennium Project. (2005). *Investing in Development: A Practical Plan to Achieve the Millennium Development Goals,* New York.

603. United Nations. (1995). A Guided Tour of the UN System. *UNESCO Couriers*, *48*(10), 2-32.

604. United Nations. (2000). *United Nations Millennium Declaration,* New York.

605. United Nations. (2002a). *Report of the Ad Hoc Committee on Jurisdictional Immunities of States and Their Property,* General Assembly, Official Records, Fifty-seventh Session Supplement No. 22 (A/57/22).

606. United Nations. (2002b). *The United Nations and the Millennium Development Goals: A Core Strategy*. New York: United Nations Publications.

607. United Nations. (2003). *Indicators for Monitoring the Millennium Development Goals*, United Nations Publications, from http://www.unesco.org/conferences

608. United Nations. (2007). *Yearbook of the United Nations 2005*. New York: United Nations Publications.

609. United Nations. (2009). *UN Secretariat Procurement Higher Standards - Better Solutions*, from http://www.un.org/Depts/ptd/pdf/pd_article_wcc.pdf

*610.* University of Exeter. (2008). *Approval of revisions to In Principle Programme Approval.*

*611.* University of Exeter. (2010a). *Individual Development Portfolio: Graduate Teacher Programme.*

*612.* University of Exeter. (2010b). *Service Level: Personnel and Staff Development.*

613. University of Exeter. (2010c). Annual Monitoring Programmes: Programme Cluster Review

614. University of Exeter. (2010d). *Annual Monitoring Programmes: Programme Cluster Review*

615. URA. (2009), Universities Regulatory Act - 49/1972 (2009) *Universities Regulatory Act and Its Executive Regulations According to the Latest Amendments*. 27th ed. Cairo: Al-Hayah Al- Aammah li-Shuun Al-Ma abi Al-Amiriyah.

616. Urquhart, B. (1995). Selecting the World's CEO: Remembering the Secretary-General. *Foreign Affairs, 74*(3), 21-26.

617. Urquhart, B. (1996). Reforming the United Nations. *Irish Studies in International Affairs, 7*, 7-15.

618. Ursin, J., Huusko, H., Aittola, H., Kiviniemi, U., and Muhonen, R. . (2008). Evaluation of Quality Assurance in Finnish and Italian Universities in the Bologna Process. *Quality in Higher Education*, 14(2), 109-120.

619. Usher, R. (1996). A Critique of The Neglected Epistemological Assumptions of Educational Research. In S. David, and Robin Usher (Ed.), *Understanding Education Research* (pp. 9-32). London: Rutledge.

620. Uvalic-Trumbic, S. (2007). The International Politics of Quality Assurance and Accreditation: From Legal Instruments to Communities of Practice, *Higher Education in the World, Accreditation for Quality Assurance: What is at Stake?* GUNI Series on the Social Commitment of Universities 2. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

621. Vaht, G. (2008). A View from the Lisbon Recognition Convention Committee *The Benefits of Mutual Recognition of Accreditation and Quality Assurance Decisions,* The European Consortium for Accreditation in Higher Education.

622. Vajda, N., Balla, M., Molnar, Z., and Bodizs, D. (2006). On the Way to Formal Accreditation. *Accreditation Quality Assurance*, 10(1), 599-602.

623. Van-Ginkel, H. J. A., and Rodriques-Dias, M. A. . (2007). Institutional and Political Challenges of Accreditation at the International Level'. In A. G. Roca, Tres, J., Sanyal, B., and Lopez-Segrera, F. (Ed.), *Higher Education in the World 2007- Accreditation for Quality Assurance: What is at Stake?* Global University Network for Innovation Pelgrave: MacMillan.

624. Verger, A. (2007). The Construction of a New Global Regime: Higher Education in the GATS/WTO Framework. In D. Epstein, and Boden, Rebecca, and Deem, Rosemary, and Rizvi, Fazal, and Wright, Susan (Ed.), *World Year*

*Book of Higher Education: Geographies of Knowledge, Geometries of Power: Framing The Future of Higher Education*. New York: Routledge.

625. Vidovich, L. (2002). Quality Assurance in Australian Higher Education: Globalisation and 'Steering at a Distance. *Higher Education, 43*(3), 391-408.

626. Vincent-Lancrin, S. (2007). *The Crisis of Public Higher Education: A Comparative Perspective*, Research and Occasional Paper Series, CSHE-18-07, Berkely: Centre for Studies in Higher Education, University of California, Pp. 1-24.

627. Visser, R. G. (1999). Is Accreditation Useful for Quality Improvement? *Accreditation and Quality Assurance, 4*(3), 108-110.

628. Vlãsceanu, L., Grünberg, L., and Pârlea, D. (2007). Quality Assurance and Accreditation: A Glossary of Basic Terms and Definitions. from http://www.cepes.ro/publications/pdf/Glossary_2nd.pdf [Accessed 22 September 2012].

629. Vogt, T. M., and Aickin, Mikel, and Ahmed, Faruque, and Schmidt, Mark (2004). The Prevention Index: Using Technology to Improve Quality Assessment. *Health Services Research, 39*(3), 511-530.

630. Von, B., L. . (1976). *General system theory: Foundations, development, applications*: George Braziller.

631. Vossensteyn, H. (2004). Fiscal Stress: Worldwide Trends in Higher Education Finance. *NASFA Journal of Student Financial Aid, 34* (1), 39-55.

632. Vroeijenstijn, A. (1995). *Improvement and Accountability: Navigating between Scylla and Charybdis Guide for External Quality Assessment in Higher Education*. London: J. Kingsley Publishers.

633. Walford, G. (1994). *Choice and Equity in Education*. London: Cassell.

634. Wallerstein, I. (2004). *World-Systems Analysis in World System History*, [Ed. George Modelski], in Encyclopedia of Life Support Systems (EOLSS), Developed Under the Auspices of the UNESCO, Eolss Publishers, Oxford, UK, from Http://www.eolss-net

635. Warren, C. (2002). Qualitative Interviewing. In J. Gubrium, and Holstein, J. (Ed.), *Handbook of Interview Research*: Context and Method. London: Sage.

636. Watson, D. (2000). Managing In Higher Education: The Wicked Issues. *Higher Education Quarterly, 54*(1), 5-21.

637. Watson, D. (2002a). Can We All Do It All? Tensions in the Mission and

Structure of UK Higher Education. *Higher Education Quarterly, 56*(2), 143-155.

638. Watson, D. (2002b). A Critical Perspective on Quality within the Personal Social Services: Prospects and Concerns. *The British Journal of Social Work, 32*(7), 877-891.

639. Watty, K. (2003). When Will Academics Learn about Quality? *Quality in Higher Education and Computing, 9* (3), 213-221.

640. Weber, L. (2005). Nature and Scope of the Public Responsibility for Higher Education and Research? In L. Weber, and Bergan, S. (Ed.), *The Public Responsibility for Higher Education and Research*. Strasbourg, Cedex: Council of Europe Publishing.

641. Weber, L. (2007). Quality Assurance in European Higher Education: From Adolescence to Maturity *Council of Europe Higher Education Series No. 9, the Legitimacy of quality Assurance in Higher Education*: Council of Europe Publishing.

642. Weiner, G. (1998). Here a little, there a little: Equal Opportunities Policies in Higher Education in the UK. *Studies in Higher Education, 23*(3), 321 - 333.

643. Weinstein, D. A., and Schneller, B. (2009). The Degree Specification Project: A Case Study in Departmental Outcomes Assessment. *Assessment Update*, 21( 2), 8-14.

644. Welsh, J., F., and Dey, Sukhen (2002). Quality Measurement and Quality Assurance. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 10(1), 17-25.

645. Wende, M. C. V. D., and Westerheijden, Don F. (2001). International Aspects of Quality Assurance with a Special Focus on European Higher Education. *Quality in Higher Education, 7*(3), 233-245.

646. West, J. (2006). Patrolling the Borders: Accreditation in Further and Higher Education in England. *Journal of Further and Higher Education, 30*(1), 11 - 26.

647. White, N. D. (2002). *The United Nations System: Toward International Justice*. London: Lynne Rienner Publishers, Inc.

648. Whitten, J. L., Bentley, Lonnie D., and Barlow, Victor M. . (1989). *Systems Analysis and Design Methods, Second Edition*. USA: Richard, D., Irwin Inc.

649. Williams, P. (2002). Define 'Quality' then we will talk 'Assurance'. from Times Higher Education. [Online] http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk [Accessed 23 September 2012].

650. Willson, C. L. (1996). Changing the Charter: The United Nations Prepares for the Twenty-First Century. *The American Journal of International Law, 90*(1), 115-126.

651. Wilson, B. (1990). *Systems: Concepts, Methodologies, and Applications*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

652. Winton, H. N. M. (1972). *Publications of the United Nations System: A Reference Guide*. New York: R. R. Bowker Co.

653. Wobmann, L., and Schutz, G. . (2006). Efficiency and Equity in European Education and training systems. from An analytical report for the European Commission prepared by the European expert Network on Economics of Education (EENEE). [Online] http://ec.europa.eu [Accessed 20 September 2012]

654. Woo, D. M., and Vicente, Kim J. . (2003). Sociotechnical Systems, Risk Management, and Public Health: Comparing the North Battleford and Walkerton Outbreaks. *Reliability Engineering & System Safety, 80*(3), 253-269.

655. Wood, A. (2006). Demystifying Accreditation: Action Plans for a National or Regional Accreditation. *Innovative Higher Education, 31*(1), 43-62.

656. Woodhall, M. (2007). Funding Higher Education: The Contribution of Economic Thinking to Debate and Policy Development, *Working Paper Series*, The World Bank, No.8. from http://www.worldbank.org

657. Woodhouse, D. (1999). *Quality and Quality Assurance in higher education*. OECD, Quality and Internationalization in Higher Education, Paris: OECD Publishing.

658. Woodhouse, D. (2008). International Perspectives on the Benefits of Mutual Recognition *The Benefits of Mutual Recognition of Accreditation and Quality Assurance Decisions*: The European Consortium for Accreditation in Higher Education.

659. Wu, B. (1996). *Manufacturing System Design and Analysis*. London: Chapman and Hall.

660. Yang, R. (2002). University Internationalisation: Its Meanings, Rationales and Implications. *Intercultural Education, 13*(1), 81-95.

661. Yin, R. (2003). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods* (3 ed.). London: SAGE.

662. Yoon, S. A., and Klopfer, Eric (2006). Feedback (F), Fueling Adaptation (A) Network Growth (N) and self-Organisation to Professional Development. *Journal of Science Education and Technology, 15*(5/6), 353-366.

663. Yorke, M. (1999). Assuring Quality and Standards in Globalised Higher Education. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 7(1), 14-24.

664. Young, D. (2002). The Influence of Business on Non-profit Organisations and the Complexity of Non-profit Accountability: Looking Inside as well as outside. *American Review of Public Administration, 32* (1), 3-19.

665. Zhao, F. (2001). Impact of Diversification of Financing Sources on Higher Education Quality. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 26*(5), 427 - 436.

666. www.abet.org

667. www.acics.org

668. www.anqahe.org

669. www.anqahe.org

670. www.apqn.org

671. www.bis.gov.uk

672. www.bologna2009benelux.org

673. www.canqate.org

674. www.chea.org

675. www.ecaconsortium.net

676. www.education.ac.uk

677. www.enqa.eu

678. www.enqa.eu

679. www.exeter.ac.uk

680. www.hefce.ac.uk

681. www.inqaahe.org

682. www.inqaahe.org

683. www.ioe.ac.uk

684. www.iso.org

685. www.ond.vlaanderen.be

686. www.qrossroads.eu

687. www.rcuk.ac.uk

688. www.un.org

689. www.unesco.org

690. www.washingtonaccord.org

691. www.worldbank.org

# Appendix A

## Schedule of the Interviews

### 1. Teaching and Learning

1.1 What are your duties and responsibilities relevant to assuring the quality of teaching and learning?

1.2 In a detailed description, how do the processes of assuring and accrediting the quality of teaching and learning operate?

1.3 How is the quality of teaching and learning within courses, curricula, basic units of QAAHE, centres of QAAHE, programmes, departments, institutions and the broader national sector of QAAHE structured?

1.4 What are the central themes in the work of assuring the quality of teaching and learning within courses, curricula, basic units of QAAHE, centres of QAAHE programmes, departments, institutions and the broader national sector of QAAHE and what does this mean to you?

1.5 Do you believe that the current operations in the development of quality of teaching and learning within courses, curricula, basic units of QAAHE, centres of QAAHE, programmes, departments, institutions and the broader national sector of QAAHE operate in a way that serves global priorities and needs?

1.6 Based on the proof of the adequacy, the nature of the evidence and the characteristics of the methodology, do you see that the current processes of assuring and accrediting the quality of teaching and learning are, or are not, adequate for internationalisation? Are these processes in need for IQAAHE?

1.7 What is your impression of how teaching and learning within individual courses, curricula, programmes, departments, institutions and the broader national sector of QAAHE can implement QAAHE in an international context /way?

1.8 What is your impression of the need for internationalising the quality of teaching and learning within courses, curricula, basic units of QAAHE, centres of QAAHE, programmes, departments, institutions and the broader national sector of QAAHE? What are the strengths of the case to be made for encompassing global need in quality assurance?

1.9 Do you believe that internationalising the quality of teaching and learning within courses, curricula, basic units of QAAHE, centres of QAAHE, programmes,

departments, institutions and the broader national sector of QAAHE requires further changes so as to meet local and global needs? If so, what are these changes and how can these changes are achieved?

1.10 How can the concept of sustainable quality be integrated in all disciplines of higher education?

1.11 Do you think that IQAAHE can create international trust, reputation and acknowledgement of higher education's graduates, programmes, courses and qualifications?

1.12 Do you think that there is a connection between the work of programmes / departments / the institutions and the national agency for QAAHE, on the one hand, and for QAAHE and international issues, priorities, needs and orders, on the other?

1.13 What kinds of evaluation practices are used in the basic units of QAAHE, centres of QAAHE, programmes, departments, institutions and the national agency for QAAHE in order to address international needs, priorities and orders?

1.14 What does internationalisation and globalisation mean to QAAHE?

1.15 Do you believe that implementing IQAAHE could create high quality international universities of national relevance and global significance?

1.16 In a time of environmental and economic crisis, how can IQAAHE assist universities and higher education institutions to adopt instrumental strategies to advancing social and economic development?

1.17 This research investigates the need for creating and operating IQAAHE via establishing a UNOIQAAHE as a multidimensional international organisation within the systematic structure of the United Nations System for governing and operating IQAAHE. This is to create a new era of international development directed to transforming QAAHE from the national and/or regional level to the international level. The suggested IQAAHE is to operate in addition to national and/or regional QAAHE and not an alternative of them for creating balance between meeting local and global needs. What is your comment on the need for creating this new era of international development?

1.18 Are there any other issues which are relevant to what we have been speaking about that we did not cover that you would like to include?

2 **Research**

2.1 What are your duties and responsibilities relevant to assuring the quality of research?

2.2 How is the assurance of quality of research structured?

2.3 What are the central themes in the work of assuring the quality of research and what does this mean to you?

2.4 In a detailed description, how do the processes of assuring and accrediting the quality of research operate?

2.5 Do you believe that the current operations in the development of quality of research operate in a way that serves global priorities and needs?

2.6 Based on the proof of the adequacy, the nature of the evidence and the characteristics of the methodology, do you see that the current processes of assuring and accrediting the quality of research are, or are not, adequate for internationalisation? Are these processes in need for IQAAHE?

2.7 What is your impression of how research can implement quality assurance and accreditation in an international context /way?

2.8 What is your impression of the need for internationalising processes of assurance in the quality of research? What are the strengths of the case to be made for encompassing global need in quality assurance?

2.9 Do you believe that internationalising the quality of research requires further changes so as to meet both local and global needs? If so, what are these changes and how can these changes are achieved?

2.10 Do you believe that current operations in the development of national QAAHE are or are not, adequate for internationalisation?

2.11 How can universities produce research with national, regional and international relevance?

2.12 What is your evaluation to current international operations in the development of QAAHE?

2.13 This research investigates the need for creating and operating IQAAHE via establishing a UNOIQAAHE as a multidimensional international organisation within the systematic structure of the United Nations System for governing and operating IQAAHE. This is to create a new era of international development directed to transforming QAAHE from the national and/or regional level to the international level. The suggested IQAAHE is to operate in addition to national and/or regional QAAHE and not an alternative of them for creating balance between meeting local and global needs. What is your comment on the need for creating this new era of international development?

2.14 Are there any other issues which are relevant to what we have been speaking about that we did not cover that you would like to include?

## 3 Community Outreach and Knowledge Transfer

3.1 What are your duties and responsibilities relevant to assuring the quality of community outreach and knowledge transfer?

3.2 How is the quality assurance of community outreach and knowledge transfer structured?

3.3 What are the central themes in the work of assuring the quality of community outreach and knowledge transfer? And what does this mean to you?

3.4 In a detailed description, how do the processes of assuring and accrediting the quality of community outreach and knowledge transfer operate?

3.5 Do you believe that the current operations in the development of quality of community outreach and knowledge transfer operate in a way that serves global priorities and needs?

3.6 Based on the proof of the adequacy, the nature of the evidence and the characteristics of the methodology, do you see that the current processes of assuring and accrediting the quality of community outreach and knowledge transfer are, or are not, adequate for internationalisation? Are these processes in need for IQAAHE?

3.7 What is your impression of how processes of assuring and accrediting the quality of community outreach and knowledge transfer can implemented in an international context / way?

3.8 What is your impression of the need for internationalising processes of assurance of quality in community outreach and knowledge transfer? What are the strengths of the case to be made for encompassing global need in quality assurance?

3.9 Do you believe that internationalising the quality of community outreach and knowledge transfer requires further changes in order to meet local and global needs? If so, what are these changes and how can these changes are made effectively?

3.10 Do you believe that IQAAHE can perform an important role in developing trust and community participation in knowledge, science and technology aimed at national future development creation operation in Egypt?

3.11 How can Egyptian Government position higher education institutions in the centre of the community and make it an engine of national economic growth, quality of life, social cohesion, progress and prosperity?

3.12 How does internationalising the quality of teaching and learning, research and community outreach and knowledge transfer help higher education institutions become more relevant to the global society?

3.13 What is the reasonable extent of IQAAHE in performing global social responsibilities?

3.14 This research investigates the need for creating and operating IQAAHE via establishing a UNOIQAAHE as a multidimensional international organisation within the systematic structure of the United Nations System for governing and operating IQAAHE. This is to create a new era of international development directed to transforming QAAHE from the national and/or regional level to the international level. The suggested IQAAHE is to operate in addition to national and/or regional QAAHE and not an alternative of them for creating balance between meeting local and global needs. What is your comment on the need for creating this new era of international development?

3.15 Are there any other issues which are relevant to what we have been speaking about that we did not cover that you would like to include?

## 4 Conclusion

4.1 Generally, do you see that there is a need for creating and operating IQAAHE via establishing a UNOIQAAHE as a multidimensional international organisation within the systematic structure of the United Nations System for governing and operating IQAAHE in order to meet local and global needs?

4.2 If I am in need to clarify my future points arising in on interview, I would like to do this subsequently by e-mails with you. Is this method adequate with you?

# Appendix B

## Schedule of the Open Survey Questionnaire

1. How the term ‘state of development’ is interpreted in Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Higher Education (QAAHE) in Egypt?
2. How the state of development of QAAHE in Egypt is measured in order to assess different levels of development?
3. What are the reasons for the differences between current operations in the development of QAAHE in the Egypt?
4. How the state of development of Egyptian QAAHE relates to and assists the country’s national development creation operation in general?
5. What are the nature and characteristics of QAAHE in Egypt
6. How the term ‘state of development’ of QAAHE is interpreted in the Egyptian context?
7. How the state of development of QAAHE is measured in different contexts in order to assess different levels of development?
8. What are the reasons for the differences between the different levels of development of QAAHE in Egypt?
9. How the state of development of structures of QAAHE relates to and assists in the Egyptian national development creation operation in general and in the development of higher education in particular?
10. What is the nature of the evidence that current operations of QAAHE are, or are not, adequate for internationalisation?
11. How the nature and characteristics of the United Nations System (UN) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) can assist in creating and operating International Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Higher Education (IQAAHE) with indicating the strengths of arguments that they should do so?
12. What is the need for creating and operating IQAAHE?
13. What is the Theorisation of the process of establishing a United Nations Organisation for International Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Higher

Education (UNOIQAAHE) within the systematic structure of the UN system for governing and operating IQAAHE?

14. What is the future of the IQAAHE?
15. Generally, do you see that there is a need for creating and operating IQAAHE via establishing a UNOIQAAHE as a multidimensional international organisation within the systematic structure of the United Nations System for governing and operating IQAAHE in order to meet local and global needs?
16. If I am in need to clarify my future points arising in on interview, I would like to do this subsequently by e-mails with you. Is this method adequate with you?

# Appendix C

## Websites of National Agencies and Regional Networks of Quality

**Websites of national agencies of Quality**

13 www.mab.hu
14 www.fhr.ac.at
15 www.aeres-evaluation.fr
16 www.finheec.fi
17 www.acquin.org
18 www.ahpgs.de
19 www.iuqb.ie
20 www.nqa.nl
21 www.nokut.no
22 www.pka.edu.pl
23 www.nica.ru
24 www.coneau.edu.ar
25 www.cna.gov.co
26 www.nba-india.org
27 www.prc.gov.ph
28 www.qualificationsrecognition.ie
29 www.juaa.or.jp
30 www.oac.gov.om
31 www.chea.org
32 www.ed.gov
33 www.confpresing.it

**Websites for regional networks of Quality**

34 http://www.washingtonaccord.org/
35 http://www.washingtonaccord.org/sydney/
36 http://www.washingtonaccord.org/Dublin/
37 http://www.washingtonaccord.org/EMF/
38 http://www.washingtonaccord.org/APEC/
39 http://www.washingtonaccord.org/ETMF/
40 http://www.washingtonaccord.org/GradProfiles.cfm
41 http://www.aaac.ca/
42 http://www.enqa.eu/
43 http://www.apqn.org/
44 http://www.uka.amu.edu.pl/subnetwork.html
45 http://www.aau.org/qa/register.htm
46 http://english.anqahe.org/cms.php?id=1